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FACTS, REASONING, AND RESPECT FOR PERSONS  
IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

by



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## ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to compare two approaches to the social studies in terms of the treatment given to "facts", "reasoning," and "respect for persons". The Alberta Social Studies 30 for the years 1957 to 1966 was selected as an example of a "traditional" social studies program, and this approach was compared with that which is currently known as the New Social Studies. Both curricular are delineated and are considered in terms of stated goals, program content, and examination emphasis.

It is often claimed that traditional approaches to the social studies concentrate on the transmission of factual knowledge to the exclusion of other objectives. This claim was tested and it was shown that there was a strong emphasis on the facts, but some reasoning processes were taught. However, there seemed little emphasis on enabling students to respect their fellow men.

It was shown that the New Social Studies while acknowledging the importance of facts, place special stress on reasoning. This second approach goes beyond the "Essentialistic" reasoning apparent in the Social Studies 30, and it is clear that an effort is made to develop what is generally known as "social inquiry". Even in this





program, however, there is little emphasis on the concept of human respect, but some writers do attempt to deal with this issue.

As the comparison of the programs ensued, an attempt was made to reveal weaknesses and strengths and to suggest directions for the development of the social studies. In particular it was argued that an effort should be made to perceive evaluation as an integral part of the teaching process. But the area which appeared to be least well treated in either program was that of the development of human respect. In order to fill this gap some hypotheses were suggested that are based on such social science methods as role-playing, verstehen, participant observation, and so on. It was suggested that these processes, which are used to develop greater cognitive awareness, could also be used to develop a respect for one's fellow man.





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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

One of the most persistent criticisms of social studies education in the last decade is that, regardless of the stated aims of any particular social studies program, emphasis is almost invariably placed on covering a prescribed body of factual data. The critics claim that, in practice, social studies programs concentrate on transmitting factual knowledge and, later on, of evaluating the students' ability to recall the knowledge that has been transmitted.<sup>1,2,3</sup> It has also been asserted that because of this concentration on the factual dimension, the learning of tasks of a more complex nature has been ignored. Although such claims have not been unique to the last decade, during this time they have become dominant.<sup>4</sup>

The whole thrust of the movement known as the "New Social Studies" is to redirect social studies education so that students will be taught how to perform more complex tasks than recalling the facts. In particular, the proponents of the New Social Studies argue that students should be taught how to use reason<sup>5</sup> and how to respect their fellow men.<sup>6</sup>





It is apparent that this redirection is proving difficult to effect since the factual orientation of social studies education seems to persist. Clearly there must be reasons for the viability of the factual approach, but it is also clear that there must be reasons for desiring changes. What will be attempted here is a critical study of existing practices in the social studies as well as of proposed changes. The aim will be to obtain some insight into the relationships amongst facts, reasoning, and respecting others which currently exist in social studies teaching in the Province of Alberta as well as those which are proposed by advocates of the New Social Studies.

The study will be concerned mainly with the philosophical and methodological levels of educational theory. The practical level is constantly used as a reference point because the formalization of programs that do not take account of classroom conditions is an exercise in futility. The main effort, however, will be directed at the philosophical or conceptual analysis of "facts", "reasoning", and "respecting others". Following clarification at this level, teaching methods will be considered which appear to be functional in terms of the contemporary educational milieu.



### The Nature of the Study

The sweeping criticisms made by the proponents of the New Social Studies can only be evaluated by considering how they apply in any given case. In order to make such an evaluation, it will be necessary to analyze a social studies program which was firmly established prior to the development of the New Social Studies as a coherent force in education. Such a program is the Social Studies 30 (grade XII) High School course in Alberta. This program will be analyzed in order to determine the degree to which the criticisms made by proponents of the New Social Studies can be sustained.

The analysis of the Social Studies 30 will concentrate on those aspects of the course which can be determined from objective documentation. Thus, emphasis will be placed on such things as the stated aims of the course, the nature of the content, the mode of evaluation, specific questions asked in examination papers and so on. As a result of such an analysis, it should be possible to locate general areas of emphases as well as the relationship which exists between the stated aims and the achievements measured.

Following this analysis three successive chapters will be developed which are aimed at elucidating the



concepts of "fact", "reasoning" and "respecting others". It will be shown later that these concepts are fundamental to both the Social Studies 30 and the New Social Studies programs. Having established the approach taken to "facts", for example, in the Social Studies 30, the position advocated by proponents of the New Social Studies will also be researched and stated. These positions will be used as the start of a study to arrive at a conceptual understanding of the nature of facts.

Once this conceptual position has been worked out, a classroom methodology consistent with the conceptual position will be developed. This methodology will be developed according to the relevant principles that are apparent in the work of the Social Studies 30 and in the well grounded recommendations of the New Social Studies. In this way, it is hoped to establish a classroom approach to facts which is based on a sound philosophical position.

The discussion in the last two paragraphs has centred on the concept of 'fact'. In the two chapters that follow, the concepts of 'reasoning' and 'respect for others' will be dealt with in succession. The pattern to be adopted in the discussion of these two issues will be similar to that pursued in the consideration of the problem of fact.





The data for this study will be obtained from official publications of the Department of Education in Alberta;<sup>7</sup> from analyses of Social Studies 30 examination papers;<sup>8</sup> and from the writings of the proponents of the New Social Studies.<sup>9</sup> The conceptual analysis of 'facts', 'reasoning' and 'respecting others' will be worked out not only with reference to philosophical theory, but relevant insights into the nature of facts, reasoning, and respect for others, will be obtained from significant works in the social sciences.

#### Statement of the Issues

It will be shown in the next chapter that the following stated aims, with the exception of #1, are common to both Social Studies 30 as well as to the New Social Studies. The first aim, while emphasized in the Social Studies 30 does not appear as a stated objective in the New Social Studies:

1. To enable students to acquire precise factual knowledge.
2. To enable students to use reason to solve social problems.
3. To develop in students a sense of respect for their fellow men.

It will also be argued in the next chapter that these objectives pose the following problems which are the



issues that will be considered in this dissertation:

1. a. What is meant by precise factual knowledge?
  - b. What grounds are used to justify claims to facticity?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the extent to which students can be credited with mastery of the facts?
2. a. What is meant by using reason to solve social problems?
  - b. What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to use reason to solve social problems?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?
3. a. What is meant by developing a sense of respect for one's fellow men?
  - b. What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to respect their fellow men?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

### Relevance of the Study

Issue #1 The first stated aim of the Social Studies 30 concerns the teaching of precise factual information to students. Not only is this objective stated in the Curriculum Guide<sup>10</sup> for the Social Studies 30, but a Royal Commission on Education in Alberta (The Cameron



Commission)<sup>11</sup> urged that more "emphasis be placed on a core of precise factual knowledge."<sup>12</sup> It has been indicated that the proponents of the New Social Studies are concerned with the emphasis on facts. They argue that the emphasis on recall of factual data is so great that other dimensions of social studies learning are ignored.<sup>13</sup>

The Social Studies 30 concern with facts assumes that secure and significant facts can be selected with ease and agreement. That is, that there is no serious conflict over what facts are important and that these facts can be observed as true without difficulty. In a fashion appropriate to an educational context, Grene writes:

In terms of this ideal, as Polanyi has put it, we suppose that if we had an infinite black-board we could write down, one after another, in final and precise form all the knowledge there is to be known.<sup>14</sup>

Over the years a wealth of evidence has been accumulated which suggests that factual statements made about social situations depend upon both the situation itself and upon the individual who observes the situation. Dewey, for example, emphasized that the data of any situation are not "given" but are "taken" by the observer.<sup>15</sup> Since there are infinite data in any situation, those





which are taken will depend upon the individual observer. Hence, there is in the selection of facts a personal or subjective element which may interfere with their security or indubitability.

In view of the two differing concepts of fact, it is apparent that an analysis of the concept is required in order to cast some light on the validity of each of the competing approaches taken to facts in the social studies. The consideration of the Social Studies 30 program will reveal the view taken of facts by curriculum developers in Alberta. A consideration of the New Social Studies writings will reveal the nature of facts as advocated by the proponents of this approach to the social studies. The conceptual analysis will shed light on the treatment of facts in both programs, and it will permit an assessment to be made of the differing approaches.

Issue #2 This issue first seeks to determine what is meant by reasoning in terms of social studies education. It should be noted that both social studies programs seek to "enable the student to use reason to solve social problems," but the programs differ in their approaches to reaching this goal. In the early part of Senior High School Curriculum Guide there appears a list of more than a hundred skills and activities associated with the



social studies. Some of the skills and activities are listed below: making deductions and inferences, drawing conclusions, reading maps, reading graphs and tables, organizing and preparing written reports, recognizing problems, delimiting and stating problems, collecting data for the solution of problems, discriminating between relevant and irrelevant materials, organizing data, evaluating the tentative solutions of problems, and so on.<sup>16</sup>

Apart from these lists which appear in the early sections of the Curriculum Guide, there is little evidence that the materials of the Social Studies 30 are organized in such a way as to involve the activities that are listed above. For example, under the heading "Suggested Specific Objectives" for each of the five units of the Social Studies 30, there is no reference to any of the activities or skills cited above. The objectives listed are all related to the content of the unit. It would seem that, as far as the Social Studies 30 is concerned, the development of the skills needed to reason to solve social problems, is assumed to take place as the student pursues a carefully delineated body of knowledge.<sup>17</sup>

Although there are different approaches taken by various proponents of the New Social Studies, the common



feature is that of the process of inquiry directed towards the solving of social problems. The process of inquiry is considered to be at least as significant as the content, so that the main difference between the Social Studies 30 program and the New Social Studies program becomes apparent. The former approach appears to assume that the student will learn to reason as he learns the content of the course, whereas in the latter approach the content appears to be organized around the process of inquiry.

The expression "process of inquiry" is used as a generic expression which subsumes: stating problems, seeking evidence, testing the validity of the evidence, making inferences, hypothesizing, testing hypotheses, evaluating and so on. It would seem that it includes all those processes that are listed in the Social Studies 30 Curriculum Guide.<sup>18</sup> These processes, it will be recalled, are not mentioned in the unit structure of the Social Studies 30, but they receive much emphasis in the works of proponents of the New Social Studies.

It is clear that an effort will have to be made to see how effectively the Social Studies 30 course did achieve its goal of enabling students to learn to reason to solve social problems. Also, since the pro-





ponents of the New Social Studies claim to emphasize the process of learning to reason, it will be necessary to inquire into the nature of the process they advocate in order to determine in what ways, if any, it differs from what is offered in the Social Studies 30 course.

One way of determining how effectively "reasoning" as a process to be learned is pursued in any particular social studies program is by analyzing examination papers to find the degree of emphasis which "reasoning" receives. Hence, the analyses of the Social Studies 30 examination papers which are undertaken in Chapter II are of importance in this context. The discoveries made from the analysis of the examination papers and other relevant documents will be used to consider the approach to reason used in the Social Studies 30 program.

If it is the case that the teaching of students to reason is inadequately handled, it may simply be because the process (whatever this may involve) is too difficult or even impossible to pursue in the classroom. Such an explanation would go far to justifying a concentration on the facts. What is not explained is that since the turn of the century, methods have been proposed and efforts have been made to teach the process of inductive reasoning in the classroom, and these efforts are multiplying rather than diminishing.<sup>19</sup>



An inquiry into the viability of teaching students how to use reason to solve social issues is clearly relevant. It is obviously necessary to analyze the concept of reasoning, to consider approaches to reasoning taken in the Social Studies 30 and in the New Social Studies. It will then be useful to consider the alignment that exists between the concept of reasoning and methods of teaching reasoning that are adopted or advocated in the two approaches to the social studies.

Another issue that is closely related to reasoning and the means by which it is taught is the mode by which reasoning can be effectively evaluated. The means used to evaluate reasoning in the Social Studies 30 program will be considered as part of the analysis of the examination papers. The complexity of evaluation processes in the social studies necessitates further consideration. For this reason a separate chapter will be employed to consider the methods used, and the methods proposed, as well as to consider some of the experimental approaches to evaluation in the social studies.

Issue #3 Like Issue #2, the aim here is to consider if there are methods available, or if there are methods that can be made available, to enable students to learn how to act in a particular way. The action under con-



sideration here is that of enabling students to respect their fellow men.

What needs to be explored is the possibility of a process which can be formalized so as to provide the teacher with a mode of operation which is cumulative and specifiable. A stipulative definition of what "respecting one's fellow men" should entail will therefore be developed. The process needs to be rooted in a sound conceptual position, it needs to have empirical backing and it needs to be a manageable classroom process. In other words what is being sought for here indicates that similar steps have to be undertaken in the consideration of this issue as with issues #1 and #2.

The relevance of pursuing this position is clear. Respect for the dignity of man is a basic tenet in a democratic society, yet there appears to be no systematic way of teaching students how to respect others. Even though the Social Studies 30 asserts that this concept of "respect" is one of its goals, a Departmental document admits that the processes used to achieve this goal are not stated in any systematic fashion.<sup>20</sup> It is clearly necessary to endeavour to discover what is being done in the Social Studies 30 program, however unsystematically. But more than this, it is necessary





to consider other means of teaching students the concept of human dignity in order to discover whether consistent, rational and cumulative approaches to this concept are possible.

Other Issues of Relevance The relevance of the three main issues is obvious: it is necessary to be aware of the nature of facts used in classrooms; it is necessary to know if the pursuit of teaching students to reason, and teaching them how to respect their fellow men is feasible or not. Moreover, the study appears to possess some other relevant features which are discussed below.

Thus, for example, this dissertation is concerned with the anchoring of methodology on a clearly defined basis. This applies to each of the three issues to which reference has been made. The aim will be to clarify the basic theoretical positions held; to establish the nature of the relations that exist between the theoretical position and the methodological approaches developed; and, finally, to consider if the methodological approaches are operational in terms of classroom practice.

Finally, at the practical level, it should be noted that the Provincial Department of Education in Alberta is in the process of developing new approaches



to the social studies. This being the case, a better opportunity to consider this subject will rarely be presented. The early part of this study is a critique which refers to an approach to the social studies which is being changed. For this reason the critique may be a useful device for curriculum makers and teachers intent on avoiding the recurrence of the sorts of criticisms which may appear in the following pages. In particular it is hoped that the method of analysis which will be used in considering the questions asked in the examinations will be functional in the selection of the kind of question which will be asked in future social studies examinations. It is hoped that the whole question of classroom processes in relation to examinations and to aims will be aired so that the possibility of a coincidence of the 3 may be re-considered.

### Study-Research Design

This section presents an overview which reveals the general structure and organization of the project. Chapter 1 is simply an introduction to the themes and issues to be examined in this thesis.

Chapter II This chapter is a consideration of the goals and evaluation procedures of the Alberta Social Studies 30 program. It commences by outlining the nature



of the Social Studies 30 program and by specifying the stated aims of the course. Reference has already been made to the fact that the Social Studies 30 reveals three specific aims: the learning of precise factual knowledge; the development of reasoning; and the development of respect for one's fellow man. It has been suggested that these aims raise such issues as: which facts are to be learned? Can reasoning be taught? Can students be taught to respect others (i.e., the concept of human dignity)? What means can be used to evaluate a student's ability to reason and to respect others? and so on.

In order to answer these questions in terms of the Social Studies 30, a typology is developed to analyze the Social Studies 30 examination papers for a period of ten years. The results of this analysis will be used to consider 'facts', 'reasoning', 'respecting others', and the means by which these have been evaluated in the specific case of Alberta. The results of this analysis will then be used throughout the dissertation.

Chapter III This chapter is concerned with the use of facts in the social studies. The analysis undertaken in Chapter II is used and extended to reveal the concept of fact that seems to be implied by the





Alberta Social Studies. By considering the works of the proponents of the New Social Studies the concept of fact held by this group will be established. Following the delineation of two concepts of fact, an analysis of the conceptual problems involved with facts will be undertaken. This study will proceed with some of the issues raised by social, political, economic, and cultural influences on the facts. Following this ~~some~~ philosophical difficulties in determining the facts will be considered.

In sum, this chapter should reveal the approaches to facts adopted by two different social studies' programs. The conceptual analysis should reveal which approach is more firmly rooted in current epistemology and social science theory. Furthermore, it would seem that knowing the facts is dependent upon the process of reasoning which locates facts in their contexts of use. Obviously, the next step is to consider what approaches are adopted towards the teaching of reasoning in the two social studies programs considered here.

Chapter IV The same pattern of analysis will be pursued here as was established in Chapter III. The first task will be to study the concept of reasoning that is apparent in the Social Studies 30 program.



Next it will be necessary to study the concept of reasoning that is advocated by the proponents of the New Social Studies. The relationships between 'facts' and reasoning will in each case be clarified in these analyses and the differences between the two programs will be revealed.

Following the consideration of reasoning in educational contexts, an analytical study of reasoning about social or human affairs will be undertaken in order to indicate the nature of the process in relation to social studies education. Such an analysis should reveal which of the approaches to reasoning recommended for classroom use is most consistent with current epistemological thinking.

Chapter V It is clearly necessary to inquire into the concept of human dignity that is apparent in the Social Studies 30 program and to compare this approach with the one which is advocated by the New Social Studies. Some possible relationships between reasoning and respect for others will be established and the differences and connections affirmed or implied in the two programs will be revealed.

The issue that will be tackled in this chapter is whether a value such as the concept of human dignity



can be taught in a fashion that is both academic and open to systematic development. Processes such as role playing and Verstehen will be considered in order to assess their possibility as vehicles for the development of the concept of human dignity. These concepts are currently receiving attention in the social sciences literature and it is to the theory of these disciplines that reference will be made in an effort to establish effective means of teaching students the concept of human dignity.

Chapter VI This chapter considers the problem of evaluation. First, evaluation in the Social Studies 30 will be reviewed, then evaluation methods in the New Social Studies will be considered. Following this a general consideration of the process of evaluation will be undertaken with specific sections dealing with 'facts', 'reasoning' and 'respecting others'. Finally, the concept of evaluation of social studies programs in terms of matching stated aims and achievements will be undertaken.

Chapter VII will include a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

#### Delimitations of the Study

Throughout this dissertation an effort will be





made to utilize the insights obtained in philosophical study to clarify some of the problems of the social studies. There are numerous problems that could be studied, but those selected here are closely related to the problems of "facts", "reasoning" and "respecting others". Even with this delimitation, however, some important and interesting areas of study will not be pursued for obvious practical reasons.

A main problem of concern in social studies teaching is the problem of the relationship between the humanities and the social sciences. While this difficult question is referred to in a few places no effort is made to pursue it in a systematic fashion. The problem that seems to exist with regard to the humanities and the social sciences, is merely a reflection of the much greater problem of the place, function, and interrelationships of the scholarly disciplines in the context of the school.<sup>21</sup> No effort is made to tackle this problem here.

In such a thesis as this, where a key issue is "respect for one's fellow men", it is difficult to avoid reference to the fact that the school is often referred to as a place where the main issues of life are avoided rather than confronted. Thus, truly human



emotions of love, anxiety, death and anomie are ignored.<sup>22</sup> In a recent article, Troutner has argued that it is possible to get at these dimensions of man by moving from the works of Dewey and into the works of Heidegger.<sup>23</sup> Pfuetze has argued that the works of Mead, who had a great influence on Dewey, reveal a close affinity to Buber's concept of I - Thou.<sup>24</sup> Both Pfuetze and Troutner seem to be seeking for some way of "humanizing" society, and it is clear that the concept of respect for persons is closely related to their search. However, neither writer considers specific approaches to the problem of respect for persons and both writers show a strong tendency to existentialism. It is clear that the approaches undertaken by Pfuetze and Troutner are significant and important, but study of the concepts introduced in their works, particularly the former, go beyond the limits of this study.

Finally, it should be noted that the Social Studies 30 program is used here as a basis of comparison. No attempt is made to develop a historical study or to make a thorough critique of one program. Likewise, various programs of the New Social Studies have been surveyed in order to gain insight into the approach taken to 'facts', 'reasoning' and 'respecting others', but no



attempt has been made to comprehensively survey the great number of programs that are currently under study in the United States and Canada.

### Discussion of Important Terms

This section discusses three pairs of terms which must be distinguished before proceeding with the development of this study.

#### Social Studies and Social Sciences

The term "social studies" is not used in this dissertation as synonymous with "social science". Wesley's stipulative definition for each of these expressions is accepted.<sup>25</sup> The social sciences are concerned with the detailed, systematic, and logical study of human relationships. On the other hand, the social studies are, "those portions or aspects of the social sciences that have been selected and adapted for use in the school or other instructional situations."<sup>26</sup> Massialas and Cox point out that it was in 1916 that the Committee on Social Studies of the National Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, made an important advance by officially adopting the term "social studies" and "by defining the area broadly as relating not only to





traditional academic concerns, but also to the life processes and needs of pupils."<sup>27</sup> In other words, the social studies are concerned with the development of disciplined knowledge as well as with the education of the student for the role of citizen in a democratic society.

### The Education of the Citizen and the Social Sciences

The marriage of "life process and needs of pupils" with "traditional academic concerns" has proven to involve numerous complications especially with regard to the way in which the social studies courses should be organized. It is argued that there is nothing incompatible about both goals, indeed they should be complementary. The difficulty has been that of organizing social studies courses in order that the value of social science becomes apparent in terms of the problems of society. More than this it is necessary to ensure that the kinds of problems that are likely to be faced by a citizen are not interpreted in such a way as to permit any whimsical issue to be passed off as a problem that would be of concern to the serious citizen.

It seems that if the concept of a "serious citizen of a democratic society"<sup>28</sup> is kept in mind, then the problem of capriciousness can be diminished. There





are two commonly accepted ways of approaching this problem. As will be discussed in the next section, the acceptance of one or other approach may be used as a means for characterizing differing styles of social studies teaching which are of major significance in this study.

One way of avoiding the accusation of capriciousness would be by selecting particular kinds of problems for study. Such problems would have to satisfy the following criteria: a. have potential for systematic, academic development; b. be of interest to serious citizens in a democratic society; c. attract the interest of the students in the hope that they would become actively involved in a search for a solution. Suggested examples of such problems include: racial prejudice, important judicial decisions, current military activities, student activism, unemployment, and so on. There is, however, still the problem of organizing these issues so as to form part of a systematically organized program of study. As was indicated in the earlier section on the Delimitations of the Study, no attempt will be made here to go into the great variety of current experimental programs that are seeking to ameliorate this difficulty. Later in the study some



indications of the impact of these experimental approaches on the current situation will be considered.

Another way of avoiding a mere whimsical selection of problems to be studied is by planning a social studies course in which curriculum developers decide what is to be covered. Presumably, such a course would select the kind of problems that are significant to the citizen and, because of the developers greater insight, these problems would be designed to extend the students' knowledge of the social sciences. In these programs the knowledge that students have acquired in the course of studies can be evaluated and assessed by periodical examinations.

### Social Studies and the New Social Studies

A detailed description which reveals the distinction between social studies courses which have become traditional, and social studies courses which have been developed because of apparent inadequacies in the traditional courses, is not possible at this stage of the study. However, some characterizations of both programs is necessary as a base from which to work. In general the proponents of the New Social Studies claim to emphasize the inductive dimension of reasoning. As a group they tend to accept the three criteria



suggested in the last section in that the problems selected for study should: a. be of interest to the students; b. have potential for systematic, academic development; c. be the kind of problem about which a serious citizen of a democratic society could be expected to be familiar. It is hoped that such programs would tend to involve the student in the active research of the problems selected for study.

In contrast, the traditional social studies programs are seen as fitting more closely into the pattern of study suggested in the second part of the last section. That is a pre-planned course of studies designed by experts to ensure systematic development of disciplined knowledge and insights into citizenship. The examination plays a significant role in such courses.

These two characterizations seem to be fairly commonly held. They will be used as a base from which to work, but they are considered as tentative indications. More valid descriptions will only be possible at the end of the study.

### Review of the Literature

For convenience of reference this review of the literature is grouped according to a series of cate-





gories which indicate the topic to which the books in each category refer. The topics are organized to accord with the order in which they arise in the dissertation and not in order of importance. There is one exception in that the issue of examinations appears in Chapter II and a discussion of the processes of evaluation is presented in Chapter VI. However, to avoid repetition both issues are treated concurrently under the heading, "Recent Literature on Examination Studies and other Modes of Evaluation."

#### Recent Literature on Social Studies

A study of works by Engle,<sup>29</sup> Fair and Shaftel,<sup>30</sup> Fenton,<sup>31</sup> Massialas and Cox,<sup>32</sup> Morrissett,<sup>33</sup> and Oliver and Shaver,<sup>34</sup> claims that traditional social studies programs are concerned with a concentration on facts and, in contrast, seem to reveal an indifference to any other aims such as learning the process of inquiry or learning how to respect others. They claim that this concentration on facts is typical of traditional approaches to social studies teaching and they offer suggestions to correct this emphasis. Smith and Cox<sup>35</sup> have recently reviewed the progress made by the newer approaches to the social studies and have confirmed the current



emphasis on inquiry. However, there still appears to be a dearth of materials on treating the problem of values in the classroom, including the value of respecting one's fellow men. It is significant that in their review of the treatment of values, Smith and Cox cite the work of the Columbia Associates<sup>36</sup> and Raup, et. al.<sup>37</sup> as being important in the current context even though both of these works were written over twenty-five years ago. It is apparent from their review of the treatment of values in the social studies that Smith and Cox identify the work of Oliver and Shaver as being of great significance with regard to the treatment of values in the social studies.<sup>38</sup>

#### Recent Literature on the Alberta Scene

In Alberta the same concern over the concentration on <sup>the</sup> facts is reflected as was apparent in the general literature of the social studies which was discussed in the last category. Articles in the Alberta Teachers' Magazine were critical of the concentration on factual material,<sup>39</sup> while Berry attacks the reluctance of the educational authorities to tackle value problems in the social studies.<sup>40</sup> The main argument which was made by critics of the concentration on



covering a prescribed body of material was that the examinations, which were set by the Department of Education, effectively controlled what was done in the classroom.<sup>41</sup>

Recent Literature on Examination Studies and Other Modes of Evaluation

In order to consider the validity of the claim that examinations tended to control classroom practice it was necessary to examine studies by MacArthur and Hunka,<sup>42</sup> the Report of the Cameron Commission,<sup>43</sup> various documents distributed by the Department of Education in Alberta,<sup>44</sup> as well as articles by Nyberg,<sup>45</sup> and Black and Knowles.<sup>46</sup> All these works referred specifically to the control of classroom procedures by external examinations. All except Nyberg's article tended to be critical of this control, but MacArthur and Hunka argued that, however unfortunate, the control was necessary.

Other relevant works referred to examination studies that were undertaken outside the Alberta situation. These studies included Montgomery's recent and comprehensive study of examinations;<sup>47</sup> Vallin's work for U.N.E.S.C.O.<sup>48</sup> and some studies undertaken by North American organizations.<sup>49</sup> Each of the



preceding studies agreed that the problem with external examinations was that they tended to become ends in themselves.

Other references to examinations and evaluation involved Bloom, et. al.,<sup>50</sup> Hoffman,<sup>51</sup> Vernon,<sup>52</sup> and Krathwol<sup>h</sup>, et. al.<sup>53</sup> The important feature to be noted in this literature is that although Bloom, et.al., and Krathwol, et. al., develop taxonomies, which categorize the difficulties of questions asked in examinations, the hierarchy of difficulties can be easily circumvented in most cases. That is, no matter how complex a question may be, if a student can recall the answer to that question he undermines the taxonomy. Hoffman's work suggested an interesting mode of analysis which is partly followed in this work while Vernon's two works provide some insight into the place that teachers can play in evaluation. This latter point is also revealed by Black and Knowles.

#### Recent Literature on the Nature of Facts

Once the degree to which the Departmental examinations are fact oriented has been determined, then it will be necessary to consider the nature of <sup>the</sup> facts sought for in the examinations. Dewey<sup>54</sup> and Mead,<sup>55</sup>





and more recently, Polanyi<sup>56</sup> and Grene<sup>57</sup> each hold that what is perceived is a matter of interaction between subjective observer and the objective world. The basic case of stating facts that are perceived involves a statement of what is seen in the world: The red ball; the high wall; the angry man. But if it is the case that facts are not simply in the world, but are perceived as the result of an interaction between subject and object, then it is possible that some subjects will make claims about facts that are not consistent with the claims made by others. Evidence that such differing claims do occur can be obtained by referring to such social scientists and historians as Redfield,<sup>58</sup> Lewis,<sup>59</sup> Lippman,<sup>60</sup> Spencer,<sup>61</sup> Carr,<sup>62</sup> and Meta.<sup>63</sup>

#### Recent Literature on Reasoning

Most of the current literature on reasoning in the social studies emphasize the process of inquiry as for example do such writers as Engle, Fenton, Massialas and Cox to whom reference has been made. As Dewey's work on inquiry is of such significance, it will be useful to consider the relationship between Dewey and the contemporary writers on the social studies.<sup>64</sup> Oliver and Shaver are critical of Dewey's



work on the grounds that his theory of inquiry is not adequate to the task of considering social problems.<sup>65</sup> Other insights into the process of inquiry are sought in the works of Baier,<sup>66</sup> Edel,<sup>67</sup> Hedley,<sup>68</sup> and Kaplan.<sup>69</sup> All these writers are concerned with using reason to solve social problems so it will be useful to compare this latter group of philosophers with the work of men like Raup, et. al., and Oliver and Shaver, who are specifically concerned with the development of the process of reasoning in classroom situations.

#### Recent Literature on Respecting Others

Oliver and Shaver have argued that "respecting others" summarizes the <sup>t</sup>oal of value orientations in a democratic society.<sup>70</sup> Downie and Telfer argue for a stronger position--that respecting others is basic to all human values.<sup>71</sup> Edel<sup>72</sup> and Harris<sup>73</sup> hold that respecting others is a significant value orientation which has a fundamental role in improving the quality of human life. Whatever the position taken by the writers cited above, the concept of respect for persons is a significant value in a democratic society, and the importance of this value is reflected in both traditional and New Social Studies programs.



When it comes to teaching students to respect others, there seems to be little work available that has reference to the classroom situation. Mead's<sup>74</sup> work is important and has been used as basic by Shaftel and Shaftel<sup>75</sup> and Chesler and Fox,<sup>76</sup> both of whom endeavour to get at the teaching of respect by the process of role playing. The process of role playing is a classroom method that appears to be basic to such processes as action research, participant observation, Verstehen, and game playing. These processes will be discussed as a means to developing in the student the process of respect for one's fellow men.

A strong position on the process of Verstehen is held by Dilthey,<sup>77</sup> Collingwood,<sup>78</sup> Schutz<sup>79</sup> and Natanson<sup>80</sup> in that they argue that this process is essential to the social sciences. If the process is not pursued overtly, they argue, then it is done covertly. In contrast to this position, another group of writers which includes Abel,<sup>81</sup> Kaplan,<sup>82</sup> Nagel,<sup>83</sup> and Scriven,<sup>84</sup> is much more critical of the process of Verstehen. They argue that the process may be useful in understanding others and in generating hypotheses, but that it is not an essential feature





of the Social Sciences. Relevant literature on Verstehen and the other processes cited above which may be useful for indicating the educational possibilities of such processes include Brodbelt,<sup>85</sup> Bruyn,<sup>86</sup> Scudder,<sup>87</sup> and Rogers.<sup>88</sup>

Because of the lack of empirical studies<sup>89</sup> an effort will be made to seek whatever evidence is available to reveal the value of such processes as are discussed above. There is some evidence of the effectiveness of such procedures, but it is inadequate, and there appear to be no long term studies of the effectiveness in the classroom of such procedures as action research, participant observation, Verstehen and so on. Due to the lack of classroom procedures in this area the conclusions of this chapter will be presented as hypotheses for further research.

This review of the literature indicates the main sources of development of this dissertation. From this broad band of reading, materials will be obtained which are germane to the issues being studied. As the study develops specific references will be made to the sources indicated in this review, and these, and supplementary references, will be identified in context in the ensuing chapters.



### References

1. Fenton writes, "Most teachers emphasize knowledge objectives in their classroom teaching. They tend to teach students facts, emphasizing names, dates, and events for their own sake. In practice, many of the social studies teachers devote so much time and energy to teaching facts that other instructional goals are neglected. Yet dozens of retention studies prove that students soon forget facts they have learned by rote." in Edwin Fenton, Teaching the New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966), p. 19.

2. Engle writes, "We must abandon our use of what I shall call the ground covering technique, and with it the wholly mistaken notion that to commit information to memory is the same as to gain knowledge. By ground covering I mean the all too familiar technique of learning and holding in memory, enforced by drill, large amounts of more or less isolated descriptive material without pausing in any way, at any time, to speculate as to the meaning or significance of the material, or to consider its relevance or bearing to any general idea, or to consider its applicability to any problem or issue past or present." in Shirley Engle, "Decision Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction," in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias, Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1964), p. 30.

3. Oliver and Shaver write, "The selection of appropriate content for the social studies program in the public schools should be the first order of business for social studies teachers and other curriculum people responsible for instruction in this area. Unfortunately, the rather static condition of the social studies for the last fifty years or so...indicates that if educators have been active in this selection process it has not seemed necessary, at least among those who finally control the curriculum, to make any significant changes...." They go on, "Despite the espousal of objectives having to do, for example, with the development of reasoning abilities of students, both teacher made and published tests all too often call mainly for the recall or paraphrasing of "factual" material, in



Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966), p. 3.

4. R. Bruce Raup, et. al., The Improvement of Practical Intelligence (New York: Harper and Brothers. 1950), p. 58.

5. See, for example, Fenton, Op. Cit., and Engle, Op. Cit.

6. See especially Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

7. Alberta Department of Education, Bulletin I (Edmonton: Province of Alberta, 1949); Alberta Department of Education, Senior High School Curriculum Guide, (Edmonton: Province of Alberta, 1955); also, Alberta Department of Education, "Statement Concerning Social Studies 30," September, 1965. (See Appendix C.)

8. The Social Studies 30 Departmental examination papers are discussed in Chapter II. Appendix B contains a detailed analysis of the 1966 Social Studies 30 Departmental examination paper.

9. These references are discussed in the Review of the Literature, Infra., p.27; also see, for example, Fenton, Op. Cit.; Engle, Op. Cit.; and Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

10. Curriculum Guide, Op. Cit.

11. S. C. T. Clarke, (ed.), A Condensation of the Cameron Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine (Alberta), March 1960.

12. Ibid., p. 65.

13. For example, Fenton, Op. Cit., Engle, Op. Cit. and Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

14. Marjorie Grene, The Knower and the Known (New York: Basic Books, 1966), p. 17.

15. John Dewey, Quest For Certainty (New York: Minton Balch & Co., 1929), See Chapter IV, pp. 74-108, also p. 178.





16. Curriculum Guide, Op. Cit., p. 8 and p. 18.

17. It should be noted that this criticism does not apply in the same way to Social Studies 10 and 20 which are the high school social studies courses that precede Social Studies 30. It is the case that, in the former courses, under the title "Suggested Specific Objectives" is the sub-title "Skills, Abilities, Habits" and listed under this sub-title are statements such as, "The student should show that he has acquired: skill in interpreting a current political or social problem; good habits in organizing information relevant to a problem; etc...." See Ibid., p. 45 and Passim.

18. Ibid., p. 8 and p. 18.

19. John Dewey, How We Think (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1913).

20. Department of Education, Bulletin I (Edmonton: Province of Alberta, 1949), p. 9.

21. This is not just a matter of a variation of the "two cultures" problem, but it is a matter of determining what should be taught; what should be excluded from the school; what kind of organization should prevail; and so on. Most disciplines can offer some justification for being represented on the curriculum of the school, but the time available is limited.

22. See, for example, Glenn Gray, The Promise of Wisdom (New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1968) pp. 30 - 31; p. 37; p. 54.

23. L. F. Troutner, "The Confrontation Between Experimentalism and Existentialism from Dewey through Heidegger and Beyond" in Harvard Educational Review. 39:124 - 154, 1969.

24. Paul E. Pfuetze, Self, Society, Existence (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961).

25. Byron G. Massialas and C. Benjamin Cox, Inquiry in Social Studies (New York: McGraw Hill, 1966), p. 27.





26. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit., p. 6.
27. Massialas and Cox, Op. Cit., pp. 27 - 28.
28. The concept of a "serious citizen in a democratic society is discussed in Chapter IV, and again in Chapter V, of this study.
29. Engle, Op. Cit.
30. Jean Fair and Fannie Shaftel (eds.), Effective Thinking in the Social Studies (Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967).
31. Fenton, Op. Cit.
32. Massialas and Cox, Op. Cit.
33. I. Morrissett (ed.), Concept and Structure in the New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).
34. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.
35. Frederick R. Smith and C. Benjamin Cox, New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1969), pp. 181 - 185.
36. Columbia Associates in Philosophy, An Introduction to Reflective Thinking (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1923).
37. Raup, et. al., Op. Cit.
38. See Smith and Cox, Op. Cit., pp. 78 - 79.
39. For example see Editorially Speaking, "Departmental Examinations: A Cancerous Growth on our Educational System" in Alberta Teachers' Magazine, February, 1968, pp. 4 - 5; also Sir Alec Clegg, Ibid., June 1967.
40. G. L. Berry, "The Philosophy of the New Social Studies," in Ibid., February, 1968, pp. 32 - 35.
41. Sir Alec Clegg, Op. Cit.; Editorially Speaking, A.T.A. Magazine, Op. Cit.



42. R. S. MacArthur and S. Hunka, School examination Practices and Standards in Alberta (Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1959.)

43. Clarke (ed.), Cameron Report, Op. Cit.

44. See, for example, Bulletin I, Op. Cit.; Curriculum Guide, Op. Cit.; and also, "Statement Concerning Social Studies 30," Op. Cit.

45. V. R. Nyberg, "Curriculum Diversity and Standardized tests" in Bulletin (of the Service for Admission to College and University #3, 1968, London.)

46. D. B. Black and D. W. Knowles, "Methods of Predicting Freshman Success: Summary and Evaluation," in The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XII, #2, June 1966.

47. R. J. Montgomery, Examinations (London: Longmans Green and Co. Ltd., 1965).

48. E. Vallin, The Value of Examinations - A Technical Study, (Paris: U.N.E.S.C.O. Workshops 1961)

49. National Association of Secondary School Principals, Testing, Testing, Testing (Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1962.) also Kenneth F. McLaughlin (ed.), Understanding Testing (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963.)

50. Benjamin Bloom (ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: David McKay Co., Inc . 1956.)

51. Banesh Hoffmann, The Tyranny of Testing (New York: Collier Books, 1964)

52. Philip E. Vernon, Personality Tests and Assessments (London: Methuen and Co., 1953) also Philip E. Vernon, Intelligence and Attainment Tests London: University of London Press, 1960).

53. D. R. Krathwol, et. al., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives II (New York: David McKay, Inc., 1956.)



54. Dewey, Quest for Certainty (New York: Minton Balch Publishing Co., 1929.)
55. G. H. Mead, Mind, Self, and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.)
56. Michael Polanyi, The Tacit Dimension (New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1966.)
57. Marjorie Grene, Op. Cit.
58. Robert Redfield, The Little Community (Chicago: Phoenix Books, 1960), p. 125.
59. Oscar Lewis, Life in a Mexican Village (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1951),
60. Walter Lippman, "The World Outside and the Pictures in our Heads," in C. Wright Mills, Images of Man (New York: George Brazillier, 1960), p. 39.
61. Herbert Spencer, "The Class Bias" in C. Wright Mills, Op. Cit.
62. E. H. Carr, What is History (London: Macmillan Co. Ltd., 1962.)
63. Ved Mehta, The Fly and the Fly Bottle (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1962), p. 110 ff.
64. As well as Dewey's How We Think and Quest for Certainty, reference will also be made to John Dewey, Logic: The Process of Inquiry (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1938.)
65. See Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.
66. Kurt Baier, The Moral Point of View (New York: Random House, 1966.)
67. Abraham Edel, Ethical Judgement (New York: Free Press, 1955.)
68. Eugene Hedley, Freedom, Inquiry, and Language (Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1968), Part II.





69. Abraham Kaplan, The Conduct of Inquiry (San Francisco: Chandler Press, 1964.)

70. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

71. R. S. Downie and Elizabeth Telfer, Respect for Persons (London: George, Allen and Unwin, 1969.)

72. Abraham Edel, "Humanist Ethics and the Meaning of Human Dignity," in Paul Kurtz (ed.), Moral Problems in Contemporary Society (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Inc., 1969), pp. 227 - 240.

73. Errol E. Harris, "Respect for Persons," in Richard De George, (ed.), Ethics and Society (New York: Anchor Books, 1966), pp. 111 - 132.

74. Mead, Op. Cit., also A. J. Reck, (ed.), Selected Writings of G. H. Mead (New York: Bobbs Merrill Co., 1964.)

75. Fannie Shaftel and George Shaftel, Role Playing for Social Values - Decision Making in the Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1967.)

76. Mark Chesler and Robert Fox, Role Playing Methods in the Classroom (Chicago: S.R.A. Inc., 1966.)

77. H. P. Rickman (ed.), Pattern and Meaning in History (New York: Harper and Row, 1962.)

78. R. C. Collingwood, The Idea of History (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956.)

79. Alfred Schutz, "Common-Sense and Scientific Interpretation of Human Action," in Maurice Natanson (ed.), Philosophy of the Social Sciences (New York: Random House, 1963.)

80. Maurice Natanson, "A Study in Philosophy and the Social Sciences in Natanson, Op. Cit.

81. Theodore Abel, "The Operation Called Verstehen" in Edward H. Madden, The Structure of Scientific Thought (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1960), pp. 158 - 165.

82. Kaplan, Op. Cit.



83. Ernest Nagel, "On the Method of Verstehen as the sole Method of Philosophy," in Natanson, Op. Cit., pp. 262 - 266.

84. Michael Scriven, "The Contribution of Philosophy of Science to the Social Studies," in George Bennett (ed.), Philosophy of Educational Development (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966), pp. 47 - 68.

85. Samuel Brodbelt, "Simulation in the Social Studies: An Overview," in Social Education, Vol. 33, #2, February 1969, pp. 176 - 178.

86. Severyn Bruyn, The Human Perspective in Sociology (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1966.)

87. John R. Scudder, "Teaching History Through First-Person Narrative: An Appraisal from Grace and Collingwood," in Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. 47, #3, November 1969, pp. 168 - 172.

88. Vincent Rogers, "Developing Sensitivity and Concern in Children," in Social Education, Vol. 31, #4, April 1967, pp. 209 - 301.

89. One of the few empirical studies is reported by Paul DeKock, "Simulations and Changes in Racial Attitudes," in Social Education, Vol. 33, #2, February 1969, pp. 181 - 183.



## CHAPTER II

### A CONSIDERATION OF THE GOALS AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES 30 PROGRAM

The aim of this chapter is to locate the stated goals of the Alberta Social Studies 30 program and to establish the nature of the evaluation procedures used. This is necessary in order to confirm or disconfirm the charges made by the proponents of the New Social Studies. This group asserts that regardless of the stated aims, the evaluation procedures of established social studies programs concentrate on evaluating students' ability to recall the facts. Because of this concentration, they argue, other more important processes are ignored. This chapter is intended to throw some light on this issue.

In particular it is hoped to find what processes other than recall of the facts are evaluated and how closely they relate to the stated aims of the Social Studies 30. When these points have been established, it will be possible to start comparing what occurs in a particular Social Studies program with what is advocated by proponents of the New Social Studies.



The Nature of the Social  
Studies Program in Alberta

The senior high school (grades X, XI and XII) social studies courses in Alberta during the years 1957 to 1966 were entitled Social Studies 10, 20 and 30. The program was intended to cover history, geography, economics, civics and sociology. The Curriculum Guide<sup>1</sup> treated aspects of all these courses, but the main orientation was to history and geography in grades X and XI, while in grade XII an effort was made to introduce the student to the other three disciplines.

In the context of both junior and senior high schools in Alberta, it was apparent that the social studies demonstrated a cyclical approach similar to that currently advocated by Bruner.<sup>2</sup> Also evident was the Gestaltist concept of an overview. Each year's work from grade VII through grade XII was broken into units and in each unit, the student was provided with the opportunity to grasp a total picture or overview prior to a closer scrutiny of the parts.

These brief statements merely suggest the general framework of the high school social studies courses in Alberta during the years 1957-1966. A broader





perspective can be obtained by considering the goals of the Social Studies as they are specified in the various official publications of the Department of Education.

### The Goals of the Social Studies Program in Alberta

Publications referring to the goals of social studies education in Alberta fall into a variety of categories. At the most general level there are documents that discuss the aims of education so that they can be understood by the public at large as well as by teachers and educational administrators. Such a document is Bulletin I<sup>3</sup>. Other publications which can be placed in this category include general studies made by government appointed committees such as the Cameron Report.<sup>4</sup> In both of these documents statements are couched in general terms and are addressed to a wide audience.

A more specialized document is the Curriculum Guide for Social Studies 10, 20, and 30.<sup>5</sup> Such a document provides specific direction for teachers in the task of social studies instruction. A more particularized version of the Curriculum Guide appears in Departmental documents specifying revisions in



certain areas of the curriculum.<sup>6</sup>

Besides the official publications of the Department of Education private publishing houses produce workbooks and supplements<sup>7</sup> which are geared to the program of studies. All these documents, whether published by the Department or by private publishers, will be considered below in order to get some insights into the goals which are sought in the Social Studies 30 program.

Bulletin I: The Foundations of Education<sup>8</sup> The question is asked in this document: "What are the aims we accept as worthy goals for social growth?"<sup>9</sup> It will be found that the seven answers given to this question, as suggested in Chapter I, fall into two groups. The complete answers are given in Appendix B, but sufficient of each answer is given below to make the point that there are two groups of answers.

#### Group I

- #1 The democratic society maintains at all times and at all costs a respect for the individual...
- #4 The democratic society expects of every citizen reciprocal responsibilities... in accepting them, he, in reality, accepts an indebtedness to his fellow citizens at large...
- #5 The democratic society expects its members



to place general welfare ahead of individual welfare and attempts in return to guarantee justice to all members...

- #6 The democratic society defends the civil liberties of all men, particularly those of minority groups...<sup>10</sup>

These four statements emphasize the recognition of the rights of individuals and groups in a democratic society. Each of the items listed above elaborates a particular feature of democratic society, but the basic aim of respecting one's fellow men is unmistakable and common to each of the items.

#### Group II

- #2 The democratic society maintains faith in human intelligence...
- #3 The democratic society relies on an appeal to reason. Democracy deplores the rise of force and violence.<sup>11</sup>

The items in the second group emphasize the need to have faith in intelligence and that such a faith requires that the reasoning ability of the student be developed in order that it may be used to solve the problems of democracy. It is clear that Group II has a different emphasis from Group I.

The Cameron Report<sup>12</sup> Another emphasis is manifested in the Report of the Cameron Commission. The Report deplored what "...seems to be a lack of concern





with facts." In order to correct this the Report recommends "...that within the present program, emphasis be placed on a basic core of precise factual knowledge."<sup>13</sup> Such a concern for the facts is also revealed in the more specialized documents referred to below.

Curriculum Guide for Social Studies 10, 20, and 30<sup>14</sup> This document, as far as it relates to Social Studies 10 and 20 provides a great deal of teacher latitude,<sup>15</sup> but in Social Studies 30 the teacher is much more restricted.<sup>16</sup> However, it is clear that the Report of the Cameron Commission was anticipated to a degree by the authors of the Curriculum Guide:

To ensure an adequate growth in comprehension and a coherent grasp of the whole year's work, each student should commit to memory a reasonable amount of information secured. He should, however, be required to memorize only those facts that have become significant to him, facts that have been clearly patterned within the framework of the generalizations.<sup>17</sup>

Thus, in common with the Cameron Report the Curriculum Guide emphasizes the need to pay attention to the facts.

The facts that are to be emphasized become



very obvious if the topics listed under "Content" in the Curriculum Guide<sup>18</sup> are compared with the "Table of Contents" of the text prescribed for the Social Studies 30, Canada in the Modern World.<sup>19</sup> The relationship is illustrated below. The first section is taken from the textbook, the second from the Curriculum Guide:

#1 Table of Contents of the textbook  
Canada in the Modern World.

Chapter	Page
1 THE GEOGRAPHIC PROBLEMS IN THE PRESERVATION OF CANADIAN UNITY. Geographic Factors Affecting Unity in the Past: The Ten Geographic Regions of North America: Diversity Within Canadian Regions: Regional Influences on Industry: The Barriers to Canadian Settle- ment: The Natural Trading Areas of Canada and North America: Canadian Transporta- tion Routes by Land and Water. <sup>20</sup>	3

#2 Main Headings taken from Curriculum Guide  
for Social Studies 30

Content

1. The Geographic Problems in the  
Preservation of Canadian Unity
  - A. The Physiographic Regions of  
Canada as Part of the North  
American Continent
    1. The Regions
    2. The Diversity within these Regions
    3. The Geographical Grain of the  
Country--north-south alignment  
not east-west.



- B. The Regional Influence on Industry
- C. The Barriers to Canadian Settlement
- D. The Natural Trading Areas of Canada
- E. Transportation Routes by Land and Water.<sup>21</sup>

It is evident that the table of contents in the prescribed text and the course outline are virtually identical documents. Furthermore, this is not a mere chance occurrence with reference to this single issue. A perusal of both documents reveals that the similarity extends throughout. Thus, the Curriculum Guide affirms the necessity for learning facts, and the facts to be learned are indicated.

Departmental Instructions In September, 1965, The Department of Education circulated a document called, "Statement Concerning Social Studies 30." The purpose of this document was to "...indicate where some revision is required." A copy is included in Appendix 3. The revision was a set of very specific instructions directing that special attention be paid to certain areas of the prescribed text and that other areas of the text be ignored. The Departmental instructions were closely adhered to by the examiners in that questions in the 1966 Departmental examinations directly reflected the Statement.



Publishers' Supplements As the prescribed texts became outdated, supplementary material was published as a means of revision. It was noticeable that the revision concentrated on presenting new factual material to the student, but there were some sections in which concepts like "Peaceful Co-existence" were introduced and discussed.<sup>22</sup>

There were also workbooks available to teachers some of which were compiled by the central office of the School Division or County. Other workbooks were reproduced privately, but all of them were closely geared to the Departmental examinations.

#### Statement of Specific Aims

In considering the documents listed above, it is possible to unpack three aims, which can be stated in a fairly specific fashion. Aim #1 is stated by the Cameron Report, referred to in the Curriculum Guide, and is established as important by the "Departmental Instructions." This aim can be stated as: the enabling of students to acquire precise, factual knowledge.

Two other aims are clearly stated in Bulletin I. These aims have already been derived from the seven





answers to the question, "What are the aims we accept as worthy for social growth?"<sup>23</sup> Two of the answers (#2 and #3) to this question can be stated as: the enabling of the student to use reason to solve social problems. The other four answers relevant to this issue (#1, #4, #5, and #6) can be reduced to: the development in the student of a sense of respect for his fellow men.

In summary, it is argued that a study of the various documents relating to social studies education in Alberta reveal three significant objectives:

1. To enable the student to acquire precise, factual knowledge.
2. To enable the student to use reason to solve social problems.
3. To develop in the student a sense of respect for his fellow men.

#### Social Studies Objectives and Issues Raised by Them

It is obviously necessary to find out how effectively the goals of the social studies are achieved. The first objective, enabling the student to acquire precise, factual knowledge can be considered easily. Students may be given a series of tests so that they are able to reveal the factual knowledge that



they can recall. However, this raises a great number of related issues, such as, what exactly is a fact? Since there are infinite facts in any social situation, how is it possible to know which facts are significant and worth recalling? Furthermore, it is clear that the selection of some facts and the ignoring of others will lead to biased and prejudiced views. The problem is: what precise, factual information are students expected to learn? These issues may be summarized as follows:

1. a. What is meant by precise factual knowledge?
- b. What grounds are used to justify claims to facticity?
- c. How is it possible to evaluate the extent to which students can be credited with mastery of the facts?

The second objective of the Social Studies 30 is to enable students to use reason to solve social problems. The evaluation of student effectiveness in the process of problem solving is much more complex than in the case of evaluating student ability to recall factual information. Even more complex is the means by which a student can be taught to use reason to solve social problems. In relation to the second aim of the Social Studies 30, it is



apparent that a number of issues need clarification.

These issues may be stated as follows:

2. a. What is meant by using reason to solve social problems?
- b. What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to use reason to solve social problems?
- c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

As with problem solving, so teaching students how to respect their fellows appears to be complex and obscure. Similarly, evaluating the degree to which a student actually does respect his fellow man appears to rest in the realm of the esoteric. Yet, if the objectives of a course cannot be related to the means used to achieve those objectives; if the means of evaluating the degree to which the objectives are achieved are obscure; then the statement of the objective suggests a semantic exercise rather than a functional statement of purpose. A consideration of the following issues may shed some light on such questions:

3. a. What is meant by developing a sense of respect for one's fellow men?
- b. What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to respect their fellow men?





- c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

The full set of problems raised in this discussion of objectives is repeated below:

1.
  - a. What is meant by precise factual knowledge?
  - b. What grounds are used to justify claims to facticity?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the extent to which students can be credited with mastery of the facts?
2.
  - a. What is meant by using reason to solve social problems?
  - b. What methods, if any are available, or can be made available, to enable students to use reason to solve social problems?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?
3.
  - a. What is meant by developing a sense of respect for one's fellow men?
  - b. What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to respect their fellow men?
  - c. How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

In order to obtain some information regarding the way in which evaluation of the achievement of these objectives is obtained, it will be necessary to discover the kinds of questions that are asked on Departmental examination papers. To this end the 1966 Social Studies 30 Departmental examination paper will



be analyzed, and the model used to analyze this paper will be used to analyze nine other Social Studies 30 examination papers. The ensuing discussion will conclude with a summary of the results of the analyses undertaken.

Description of the Social Studies 30  
Evaluation/Examination Procedures

The Social Studies 30 Departmental examinations are held in June of each year. A typical examination paper may be found in Appendix C. A number of interesting features become apparent immediately. First, the correspondence which was shown to exist between the prescribed text and the course outline also extends to cover the Departmental examinations. That is, the unit structure of the text and the course outline appears in the examination paper. If one works through the text, one also works through the examination.

A study of ten annual examination papers (1957-1966) revealed a very definite pattern, especially since 1960. There seemed to be an emphasis on short answer questions which appear to depend on familiarity with the prescribed text,<sup>24</sup> a high school atlas, or the current affairs journal, World Affairs.<sup>25</sup> There



were some answers which did not derive from these sources, but generally the three works cited were accepted as authoritative.

Apart from Bulletin I all the documents published by the Department of Education stress the necessity of knowing the facts. Furthermore, the workbooks and supplements available also reveal a strong tendency to emphasize factual information. Thus, the materials available for guiding teachers, preparing students, as well as the examinations themselves, suggest that a specific body of factual data has to be recalled.

#### Questions Raised by Evaluation/ Examination Procedures

Some light will be shed on the evaluation processes used by a study of the Departmental examinations and an analysis of the questions asked therein. But some problems are immediately posed. For example, if there is a factual emphasis in the Social Studies 30 examination papers, what is its extent? If other emphases are apparent, how do they manifest themselves in the examination? Thus, what questions test the student's ability to use reason to solve social problems? What



questions test the student's ability to respect his fellow men?

Answers to these questions will reveal something of the relationship that exists between the stated aims of the Social Studies in Alberta and the degree to which these aims are evaluated in the Departmental examinations. In particular the study will reveal something of the validity of the general charges made by the proponents of the New Social Studies insofar as they claim that stated goals dissolve into the study and recall of the facts.<sup>26</sup>

The analysis of the examination paper will also reveal the nature of the facts sought by the examiners, the kind of reasoning thought significant and measurable as well as the kind of processes involved in evaluating respect for others. Such an analysis will obviously lead to an assessment of the evaluation procedures used in the Social Studies 30 program.

Analysis of a Social Studies 30  
Examination Paper

The initial study of the Departmental papers suggested that key words in each question could be used to describe the intellectual processes necessary



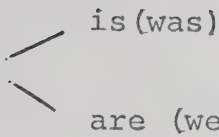


for answering the questions. Thus, such words as: what, which, how, why, match, explain, compare, interpret, define, etc., appeared to be the indicators of the intellectual processes required to answer questions. As this seemed to be the case, it appeared possible to reduce the questions to a limited number of paradigmatic forms. The number of paradigms to which the questions could be reduced would represent the categories into which the questions could be placed.

This method was attempted on questions whose key words were "what" and "which", and questions whose key words were "how" and "why". The former two words are usually regarded as demands for descriptions and the latter two words are regarded as demands for explanations.<sup>27</sup> As the majority of the questions fell into one or other of these two categories (description or explanation), it seemed that they would be fundamental to the analysis of the examination papers.

The simplest form of the descriptive paradigm is apparent in the question, "What product is imported into Kitimat?" This reveals the paradigmatic form:



what   
is (was)  
are (were)

"Which" questions can also be reduced to this form, "Which of the following Royal Commissions made recommendations for the advancement of education in Alberta? A. Gordon Commission; B. Fowler Commission; C. Cameron Commission; D. Massey Commission.

It soon became obvious that a simple categorization of this nature was not valid for a broad range of questions. Consider the question "What was the purpose of Bismark's Reinsurance Treaty?" This question can be restated in the form, "Why did Bismark sign the Reinsurance Treaty?" The answer to the second question could be exactly the same as the answer to the first. That is to say, if a student knows the purpose of the Reinsurance Treaty, then he would be able to provide an explanation for the Reinsurance Treaty. Thus, the categorization breaks down because a question which demanded a description could be satisfied by the same answer as a question that demanded an explanation.



A similar breakdown in the categories becomes apparent in a question which will be referred to later in this work: Why is the Canadian Arctic unlikely to support a large population? The following alternatives were offered from which the student had to select the best answer: A. Too few cities; B. Too little potential for agriculture; C. Too few mineral resources; D. Too few harbours. The key word here is "why" and one of the alternatives purports to explain why the Arctic is unlikely to develop a large population.

This, however, will hardly do. The question could be restated in a form that demands a simple description. For example: The Canadian Arctic is unlikely to support a large population. Which of the following states the reason. A. Too few cities; etc.... There is no doubt that even in the second form something is being explained. But the process of explanation has been reduced to simple identification of one reason from amongst several.

The point being made here is that it serves no function to make distinctions between descriptions and explanations if the student is only expected to





to identify or recall. The space limitations tend to reduce explanations to descriptions, and the descriptions tend to be items recalled from the textbook, atlas or current affairs journal. In brief, recall seems to be all that is expected of the student. The official answer to the "Arctic" problem states that B (too little potential for agriculture) is correct. The primary reference text, Canada in the Western World, states:

Climate, lack of true soil, and poor drainage make agriculture extremely difficult in the far Northland. Without basic sources of food, a large population can never be supported economically....<sup>28</sup>

If a student can recall this statement, or even the gist of it, he is able to explain why the Arctic will probably not support a large population.

The student, however, need know nothing about the process of explaining in order to answer the question on the Arctic. All that the student has to do is to recall what the textbook stated about the Arctic. The emphasis is on recall, a simpler intellectual process than that of describing or explaining.

If no simple explanation were stated in the text, the student would be required to recall all he knew



about the Arctic, consider this data as evidence, select what was relevant, and finally suggest a hypothesis such as, "It is not likely that the Arctic could support a large population because...." It is clear that this process is quite different from simply recalling the explanation that was stated in any of the authorized texts.

The above discussion explains why Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives<sup>29</sup> was not used in this analysis. Most of the processes discussed in the Taxonomy, except those based on recall, could have been circumvented by students answering the questions of the Social Studies 30 paper if they were able to state the definitions, descriptions, and explanations provided by the text.

#### The Type I Question

The failure of the form of categorization described above, and the cause of the failure, suggested another approach. In the analysis of the "Arctic" question, it was shown that if the answer depended on the recall or identification of a specific statement from one of the authorized books, then there was little need to know anything about the process



of explaining. In all questions where the process demanded could be replaced by recalling a textbook statement, the label "Type I" was used.

In other words if the question could be reduced to the form, "What does the authorized book say about...", it would be called a Type I question. A few examples of this reduction are listed below:

What does the textbook claim about the purpose of Bismark's Reinsurance Treaty?

What does the textbook claim about the cause of the lower winter temperature on the Atlantic coast of Canada as compared with the Pacific coast?

What product does the textbook claim is imported into Kitimat?

It is obvious that the questions are awkward in this form, but this does not detract from the principle that is involved.

There were certain other questions that were signally well suited to the Type I categorization. Map questions which demanded a demonstration of the student's knowledge of the location of particular towns, rivers, roads or other features considered to be of geographical importance, clearly depend on



the ability to recall. There were questions of this type in each of the examination papers that was considered. The question in the 1966 paper involved a sketch map of Canada labelled with letters of the alphabet. The students were required to refer to the map and answer such questions as:

- (a) Each of the following statements refers to a place or area which is marked on the map with a capital letter. Identify each place or area by name and, in the right column, list the letter which marks its map location.

<u>Description</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Location</u>
The largest city in Canada	Montreal	K
etc.	etc.	etc.

There were nine other similar parts to this question. In order to answer the particular question cited, it was necessary to recognize the description and to recall the location of Montreal.

Matching questions of a "definiens"-"definiendum" type are really simplified recall questions. An example of such a question is given below:





Match each definition or description in Column I with the appropriate term from Column II.

<u>Column I</u> (Definition or description)	<u>Column II</u> (Term)
Selling of excess products on foreign markets at less than production costs.	A. reciprocity
Use of goods and services.	B. free trade
Etc.	C. protection
	D. mercantile system
	Etc.

These are "simplified" recall questions because the student is not asked to recall the textbook definition if, in the case of "dumping", for example, he only has to recognize the definition. Such questions are really recall questions with a clue. Since, however, the key to answering the questions is the ability to recall, the questions were categorized as Type I.

#### Questions of Types II to VI

The Type I questions were noteworthy because they could be answered by recalling statements made in the authorized texts. Key words such as explain, describe, define, etc., did not require that the student demonstrate his ability to describe, explain, define, etc.



Instead, the key words were used euphemistically and the student was simply required to recall.

In questions which have been categorized as being Types II to VI, the key words in each question are not euphemistic, but significant. As with most categorizations, however, it is not always possible to distinguish sharply between them, and the first category to be discussed below is only arbitrarily distinguished from the Type I questions.

#### The Type II Questions

The questions classified as Type II seem to rely heavily on recall, but in the case of this second group of questions, some additional intellectual process was required. Consider the following question, which demonstrates a dependence on recall, but which also requires the ability to perform some other mental operations:

Below are listed six pairs of facts or events. On your answer sheet record:

- A - if you consider that the first statement was the cause of the second
- B - if you consider that they were the result of the same or of similar causes



C - if you consider that the  
statements are unrelated

Canada opposed Article X of the Covenant  
of the League of Nations. The U.S.A.  
refused to join the League of Nations.

In 1935, a coalition of parties of  
the left in France formed the Popular  
Front. In 1936, French Premier Leon  
Blum's government dissolved the Fascist  
Leagues in France.

The Lytton Report condemned Japanese  
aggression in Manchuria. Japan  
withdrew from the League of Nations  
in 1933.

Lenin took charge of Bolshevik policy  
in April, 1917. An ultimatum from  
Hitler forced the Chancellor of  
Austria to resign in 1938.

In 1931, President Roosevelt of the  
United States instituted his "New  
Deal". At the end of World War II,  
the United States initiated the  
European Recovery Program.

In 1947, Russia felt that closer control  
must be secured over her satellites.  
In 1947, Russia created the Cominform--  
a revival of the Comintern which had  
been disbanded in 1943.

This question, which was taken from the 1966 paper,  
has been stated in detail in order to reveal its  
complexity. It involves the recognition of a parti-  
cular relationship between two sentences. The relation-  
ship is made clear in the text, but the candidate  
has to work through a more complicated set of instructions





than was usually the case in Type I questions.

In all cases where there was any doubt as to whether or not the question was Type I or Type II, the doubt was settled by placing the question in Type II. With the exception of the Type II questions, all the other questions fall into what Kaplan<sup>30</sup> calls "natural categories." That is, the categories seem to be clearly distinct, and seem to possess potential for development in contexts other than the particular one under consideration.

### The Type III Questions

The Type III questions are those which are dependent on the ability of the student to interpret data. In every examination paper but one from 1957 to 1966, there was one question of this type. It involved interpretation of data which were taken from a chart or from tables of figures. The type of question asked was:

Answer the following questions by careful reference to the Table (the table was on the page facing the list of questions).

(a) What was Canada's most valuable export commodity in 1962.

(b)

... and so on.



This type of question does not depend upon facts learned but upon the ability to interpret data.

#### The Type IV Questions

A type of question which appeared infrequently was the short paragraph. This type of question demanded a definition, description or explanation of some social studies term, event, or problem. However, the student clearly had the opportunity to develop his own position because (a) there was space for roughwork; (b) not all the questions of this kind were treated in the textbook.

#### The Type V Question

Prior to 1965 two short essays were required in the Social Studies 30 examination. Since that date one essay and an essay outline has been required from each student. The essay outline is categorized as a Type V question. The Type V question depends on knowing the specific form of the essay outline and developing an outline in accordance with that form.

#### The Type VI Question

Since 1965 only one essay has been demanded of students, but prior to that date two essays were



required. Essay questions clearly demand more candidate initiative than any of the other questions described above. Answers have to be planned, organized, summarized, data has to be recalled and selected, etc. It seems apparent that the essay question has the potential to be used as a mode of evaluating student achievement in relation to the three stated goals of the Social Studies 30.

### Implications of the Analysis

#### Type I Questions

The answer to these questions clearly depend on the student's ability to recall what he has read in a particular body of literature. The emphasis on recall is important. It has already been indicated that collections of previous examination questions and answers are available to students and old examination papers are available from the Department of Education. Thus the form of the questions is well known and students will have had the opportunity to "train" for the examination.

Training for an examination is particularly useful when time is at a premium, and time seems to



be at a premium in the Social Studies 30 examinations. For example, in the 1966 paper, the time available for answering each question (except the essay and outline questions) amounted to 1.3 minutes. Then, if one assumes that only important instructions are written on the examination papers, the second most important of these instructions read, "Do not spend too much time on any one question."

It seems that the essence of intellectual processes such as defining, explaining, showing how, describing, etc. is time. But the time needs to be coupled with space so that the student has the opportunity to think, outline, discard, organize, re-organize, and, finally, to state his position. From the papers studied, however, there appeared to be neither time during the examination, nor space on the examination paper to marshall arguments and plan strategies. Students who spent time working things out would be seriously handicapped in such a situation, but the student who could simply recall what he had read in the authorized texts would have a significant advantage.





Similarly, the teacher who spent very much time during the school year on ways of discussing, explaining, describing, or defining would be seriously prejudicing the chance of covering the textbook. Under such circumstances, it is clear that the safest approach for both teacher and student is to "cover" the text, learn the definitions, explanations, descriptions, etc., that are given in the textbooks, and recall them as required during the examination. It is apparent that sheer memorization "pays off" in terms of examination results. The teacher who has covered the course, worked through old examination papers and workbooks, and who has drilled his students to respond rapidly to questions, has prepared his students well for the external examination.

At this point it is important to note that since 1960 it has always been the case that over 65% of the questions asked in the Social Studies 30 examinations have been Type I questions. In one of the examinations over 80% of the questions asked were of this type. A table listing these details is found on page 75.



### Questions II - VI

All of these questions demand more than identification and recall. They demand a variety of rational processes, but apart from the essay question the rational processes are specified and limited. There was no evidence that any of the questions, except the essay, revealed the possibility of evaluating the students' recognition of the rights of his fellows. The specific reasoning processes demanded in the examinations will be discussed in Chapter IV and the possibility of using these questions to evaluate respect for others will be undertaken in Chapter V.

Perhaps it is relevant at this point to recognize the enormous difficulties involved in assessing essay questions. Having recognized that this problem exists, it will be postponed as a subject for consideration in Chapter VI

### Use of the Typology

The typology which was discussed above was used as a means to analyze the Social Studies 30 examination papers for the years 1957 - 1966. Appendix III contains the detailed analysis of the



1966 Social Studies 30 paper. This study was used as a model and the papers from 1957 - 1965 were then analyzed according to it. A summary of the results of these analyses is tabulated below.

DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS IN THE  
ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES 30 DEPARTMENTAL  
EXAMINATIONS FOR A TEN YEAR PERIOD

	Type I	Type II	Type III	Type IV	Type V	Type VI
1957	50	-	22	4	-	24
1958	52	9	16	3	-	20
1959	75	2	1	-	-	22
1960	75	-	6	-	-	20
1961	81	-	-	-	-	19
1962	75	-	6	-	-	19
1963	72	5	3	-	-	20
1964	59	6	3	12	-	20
1965	69	3	5	3	5	15
1966	69	6	5	-	5	15

The Necessity for Further Consideration

Facts

It is clear that the Social Studies 30 program in Alberta places a strong emphasis on the facts.





The facts selected were taken from three main sources: Canada in the Modern World, an atlas, and World Affairs. These facts seem unchallengeable to the student because he was required to recall them as answers to specific questions and no opportunities were provided for the student to offer alternatives. When facts are treated in this way the impression of indubitability must be suggested to the student. But how justified is such an impression? To what extent are factual statements reliable? Are all factual statements of the same kind? If there is confusion as to the facts, are such facts ignored by the examiners? If unreliable factual statements are not used, how can students learn to operate with such statements? If authorities disagree as to the facts, what criteria are used to select those that eventually are used? Such questions as these are in obvious need of answering and answers will be sought in Chapter III.

### Reasoning

Although some emphasis was placed on reasoning, it was apparent that, except for the essay question, the reasoning involved was fairly circumscribed.



That is, the questions asked were clear and definitive as far as the particular reasoning processes sought. Students were instructed to interpret, define, describe, or outline, but except for the essay question, students were not called upon to work on problems that demanded the use of a wide variety of processes. The essay question, on the other hand, did require the student to recall information, interpret data, select information for use, propose hypotheses, make inferences, test hypotheses, and so on. But even as far as the essay question was concerned the process of reasoning was restricted to the limitations established by the examination situation. Such a situation is hardly adequate for testing the student's ability to use reason to solve problems in more typical social situations.

The difficulty is clear: applying reason to social problems is a highly complex process and it may well be too complex to evaluate in typical examination conditions. But learning to reason in order to solve typical social problems may be a process that is too complex to be learned in school. Thus, problems raised by racial integration or social



class differences may have to be postponed until the student leaves school. Such an approach suggests educational impotence. But the question remains, how can the teacher in the school enable the student to use reason to solve social problems? This problem will be considered in Chapter IV.

### Respecting Others

What has been stated with reference to the development of reason applies with added force to the student's opportunity to learn how to respect others. Apart from the essay question, there was none in the Social Studies 30 examination which offered the possibility of evaluating the student's ability to respect others. Furthermore, Bulletin I laments the fact that teaching respect for others is a process that has been left to chance.<sup>32</sup> Since, however, respecting the rights of others is a stated goal of the Social Studies, it is obviously necessary to consider the means by which this goal could be sought in a formalized fashion in the classroom. A consideration of this question will be undertaken in Chapter V.



### Evaluation

When the three stated aims of the Social Studies 30 in Alberta have been reconsidered in the fashion suggested above, it will be necessary to make a further study of the evaluation procedures used. From the papers analyzed, it is already clear that some of the stated goals of the Social Studies 30 were not subjected to a thorough evaluation in the examinations. Under the circumstances, after the nature of the facts used in the social studies has been analyzed, after various ways of achieving the goals of "using reason to solve social problems" and "respecting the rights of others" have been considered, it will be necessary to think about methods of evaluation. That is, it will be necessary to take into account whatever insights have been obtained in considering the means that can be used to achieve the stated goals of the Social Studies 30 in order to recommend modes of evaluation.





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3. Bulletin I--Foundations of Education, Department of Education, Province of Alberta (Edmonton: 1949).
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5. Curriculum Guide.
6. See, for example, the "Statement Concerning Social Studies 30" in Appendix B.
7. See Canada in the Modern World - A Supplement to be used in conjunction with the textbook. (Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons, 1966).
8. Bulletin I.
9. Ibid., p. 13.
10. Ibid., pp. 13-15.
11. Ibid.
12. Cameron Report.
13. Ibid., p. 65.
14. Curriculum Guide.



15. A consideration of Social Studies 10 and 20 reveals that the Department of Education encourages teacher initiative and provides opportunity for teacher innovation. For example, the following can be found in the Curriculum Guide:

The outline for each Unit includes Suggested Activities, among which choices may be made. In addition to the development of some of the Suggested Activities, the teacher and class should feel free to plan and develop additional Reading Activities and Expressional Activities. Curriculum Guide, p. 3.

A brief survey of some of the important features of Unit I, Social Studies 10, will illustrate further the opportunities that are present for the innovative teacher. The time suggested for the unit is five weeks. During this time the teacher is encouraged to select from twenty-two items of "Suggested Activities and Problems for Study." The teacher has available a choice (one of two) of primary references, and twenty-eight other books are listed as "secondary references."

Given that each unit in Social Studies 10 and 20 has a similar range of possible alternatives, and given the opportunity that the teacher is granted to plan other activities, it appears that the teacher does possess a good deal of freedom. It certainly appears possible for the teacher, operating under such circumstances, to deal with significant conflict situations in a rational manner provided he has the ability. Indeed, the teacher has a mandate to do just that.

Although the same general conditions apply to Social Studies 30, the structure of the curriculum suggests certain restrictions that are not apparent in the two preceding courses. For example, in each unit of Social Studies 10 and 20 there appears the heading "Suggested Activities...." This heading does not appear in Social Studies 30. Instead, the definitive title "Content" is used.

16. The restrictions placed upon the teacher in the Social Studies 30 course are clearly due to



the requirements of the Departmental examinations. The Social Studies 30 examination culminates in the Social Studies part of the student's high school education. For some students these examinations open the way to higher education. In order to avoid the wrong emphasis, the teacher must know what work has to be covered so that he will not mislead his students by covering material that is irrelevant to the final examination.

17. Curriculum Guide, p. 6.

18. Ibid.

19. Bertha Lawrence, et. al., Canada in the Modern World (Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Ltd., 1958).

20. Ibid., p. VI.

21. Curriculum Guide, pp. 119-120.

22. Supplement to Canada in the Modern World, p. 20.

23. Bulletin I, p. 13.

24. The prescribed or authorized text is Lawrence, et. al., Op. Cit.

25. World Affairs (Toronto: World Affairs Press).

26. Donald W. Oliver and James J. Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966) p. 3 and p. 5.

27. R. Harre, An Introduction to the Logic of the Sciences (London: MacMillan, 1965), p. 4.

28. Lawrence, et. al., Op. Cit., p. 22.

29. Benjamin Bloom (ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: David McKay Co. Inc., 1956).

30. Abraham Kaplan, Conduct of Inquiry (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964), p. 50.





31. "In the growth of human personality least progress of all has been registered. The dogma that human nature is unchangeable has too long been accepted at face value. Too little has been known concerning the drives that motivate human behaviour. Too much has been left to chance in the determination of individual value." See Bulletin I, p. 9.



## CHAPTER III

### FACTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Type I questions in the Social Studies 30 examinations suggest that factual statements are somehow indubitable and can be easily recognized as such. Students who learn these statements and who produce them as responses to appropriate questions are assumed to be students who "know" the subject. In contrast to this view, advocates of the New Social Studies hold that factual statements are dubitable and that significant factual statements may vary according to the issues under consideration. In this second position it is not so much the knowing of the factual statements which is important, but knowing how to observe, collect, test, and use the data which go into the formulation of factual claims.

The aim of this chapter is to work out these two positions in order to consider the validity of each. This consideration should lead to a better understanding of the nature of factual statements which, in turn, should lead to recommendations regarding the treatment of facts in the process of education.



Factual Statements in the  
Social Studies 30

The analysis of the Social Studies 30 examination papers revealed that candidates were expected to demonstrate that they knew the factual answers to a great number of specific questions. This emphasis on factual statements as things to be learned and later recalled suggests a "...conception of knowledge as completely impersonal, explicit and permanent."<sup>1</sup> Grene claims that this attitude has "...dominated philosophical thought in the last few generations."<sup>2</sup> It is clear that Grene is referring to the atomising tendencies of English philosophy and in so doing she ignores the counter tendencies in pragmatists like Dewey. Indeed, what Grene seems to be driving at is exactly the same criticism of traditional epistemology which is summed up in Dewey's phrase, the "spectator theory of knowledge."

It is this spectator theory that seems to play such a large part in the Social Studies 30 examination. Candidates are expected to write down answers to questions which are purportedly, incontestably true or false. As far as the Type I question is concerned, the word "incontestable" is significant.



The student is only permitted to make a mark on a piece of paper or to write a word or sentence. He cannot argue, criticize or suggest alternatives. No matter what the student believes he is forced to give an answer which he cannot qualify. Thus even though the student may believe that he has a right to suspend judgement or to propose a variety of possible answers, he is obliged to make a single, definitive assertion. The acceptability of such singular assertions may be open to considerable doubt. Some of the more obvious of these doubtful assertions which have been demanded in the Social Studies 30 examinations will be analyzed in the following section.

An Analysis of Some Specific Test Questions  
Used in the Social Studies 30

Consider the following statement taken from Canada in the Modern World:

Canada, in area the third largest country in the world, is exceeded in size by the U.S.S.R. and China only.<sup>3</sup>

It is clear that this factual statement was believed accurate because in the 1961 Social Studies 30 Departmental examinations the following question appeared:

Canada, in area the third largest country in the world, is exceeded in size by each of:





- (a) India and the U.S.S.R.
- (b) China and the U.S.S.R.
- (c) U.S.A. and China
- (d) U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.<sup>4</sup>

In September 1965, however, the Alberta Department of Education corrected this statement and claimed that Canada is the second largest country in the world.<sup>5</sup> The cause of the original mistake was not stated, nor was there any explanation given regarding how the correction was made.

This example is instructive because one would expect the magnitudes of countries to be well known, but national boundaries change and no temporal referent is indicated in the question. However, there are other difficulties with this question. The area of each country mentioned in the question is enormous; the differences in size are not great. Canada and Russia have Arctic areas, and Canada has an enormous number of Arctic Islands. Areas have to be measured in order to be determined. Much of this sort of measurement has to be done by air and often in adverse weather conditions, thus errors are likely to occur. Once these possibilities of error are known, the attitude which one adopts to the factual statement that "one country is larger than another" begins to change.



When political factors are introduced, it becomes more uncertain than ever to claim that one country is larger than another. For example, China has been involved with India over border disputes, and China is currently disputing its border with Russia. Furthermore, China has annexed Tibet, but it is not clear whether the territory of Tibet is included in the area of China for the purpose of assessing the size of China. All of these political and geographical problems cast doubt on the statement that "Canada is the second largest country in the world."

From the perspective of the Social Studies it would seem that the influences that make grading countries according to size a difficult procedure are what a student needs to know. Simply to know that one country is larger than another, but not to know anything about the degree of difference or the possible permanency of that difference is to fail to distinguish between particular factual statements that can be accepted as true (for example, Canada has a larger area than the United Kingdom) and particular factual statements whose truth value may change from time  $t_1$  to time  $t_2$ .



Consider the following question which was taken from the 1966 Social Studies 30 examination:

Why is the Canadian Arctic unlikely to support a large population?

- (a) Too few cities.
- (b) Too little potential for agriculture.
- (c) Too few mineral resources.
- (d) Too few harbours.

The answer as stated in Canada in the Modern World is:

Climate, lack of true soil, and poor drainage make agriculture extremely difficult in the far Northland. Without basic sources of food, a large population can never be supported economically.<sup>6</sup>

The question is a typical Type I question which asks the student to recall what the textbook said about the Arctic.

Unlike the question that discussed the comparative size of Canada, to the knowledge of the writer, this question has not been commented on in any way. It is an extremely significant question because so much of Canada is within the Arctic Circle and considerable effort is being made to develop this vast hinterland. However, in the view of the textbook writers the effort will be limited by the inability of the Arctic to support a "large population."





It is not clear what is implied by a "large population." Both the Russian Arctic and the Swedish Arctic support populations which are "large" by Canadian standards. The Russian Arctic has a population of 1.7 million; the Canadian Arctic has a population of 32,000.<sup>7</sup> Clearly the examiners need to clarify what they mean by "large."

Perhaps the question was intended to reveal some agricultural problems about Arctic development. If this is the case the issues are not well clarified. What the question does, once one ignores the official answer, is to produce some puzzlement. Why is the Canadian Arctic so ill developed in comparison with the Russian Arctic and Swedish Arctic? Are agricultural conditions really that much worse in the Canadian Arctic?

Another line of questioning could be pursued by considering whether the agricultural issue is really significant. There have been many recent discoveries (which were known in 1966) which could have an important influence on Arctic development. Such developments include the increased possibilities of subterranean cities, geodesic domes, hover crafts, improved mechanical sleds, track vehicles, and so on.



There is, however, no place for the consideration of these issues in the question.

Another question, also taken from the 1966 Social Studies 30 paper, reveals further difficulties with the factual treatment of Social Studies problems:

Why did the O.A.S. troops intervene  
in the Dominican civil struggle?

The following alternative answers were suggested by the official answer sheet:

They wanted to forestall the  
takeover of the Republic by the  
Communists.

They wanted to prevent another  
Cuba.

They wanted to take on a peace-  
keeping role within the organization.<sup>8</sup>

Any one of these alternatives, apparently, correctly answersthe question.

A study of the literature, both popular and scholarly, suggest these and other answers. Time magazine held fairly consistently that American troops, and then O.A.S. troops, occupied the Dominican Republic in order to "prevent another Cuba." One Time cover showed the right wing military leader Wessin Y Wessin under the caption "trying to prevent another Cuba."<sup>9</sup>



The school news magazine World Affairs, however, ran a main article on the Dominican Republic in the September 1965 issue, but it made no mention of Communist involvement.<sup>10</sup> A MacLean's article in the same year was highly critical of the U. S. involvement in Latin America.<sup>11</sup> The article maintained that United States money supported military dictatorships in many Latin American countries and that:

In each case the excuse of the military was that they were extinguishing a Communist threat. But, the number of Communists in gigantic Brazil was microscopic, in Honduras you could have counted them on your fingers, and in the Dominican Republic Bosch's adversaries admitted that he was not a communist. The worst they would say was that he was 'soft on Communism.' Apparently, the word "Communist" in whatever context justified the military<sup>12</sup> racketeers in Washington eyes.

How then is it possible to justify the specific answers demanded by the Social Studies 30 examinations? A student who had read the MacLean's article could say that "the O.A.S. troops intervened in the Dominican Republic because they were tools of the C.I.A." For this statement the student presumably would not have been granted any marks, but the student who had seen a particular Time cover would receive credit for stating that, "the U.S. was trying to prevent another Cuba."



The Problem of Factual Statements  
in the Social Studies 30

The questions that have been analyzed above are all Type I questions, and a reference to the table on page 75 will reveal that Type I questions dominated the Social Studies 30 examinations from 1960 to 1966. This analysis, while revealing the inadequacies of a few of the questions asked in the examination, does not pretend to claim that all Type I questions are inadequate. The analysis is intended to reveal the ever-present possibility of error that exists in statements of the kind that were required as answers to questions in the Social Studies 30 examinations.

A serious problem with the factual emphasis in the Social Studies 30 is the tendency to reduce "knowing" to "knowing that":

..."knowing that" refers to one's "cognitive repertoire," that is, to knowledge of factual propositions, as for instance, knowing that Sussex is a county in England, knowing that messer is the German word for knife.<sup>14</sup>

It is not simply that the majority of the questions asked in the Social Studies 30 examinations were of this type, but it is also the apparent belief that





"knowing that" is somehow more significant than "knowing how." But Ryle has suggested:

In ordinary life, on the contrary, as well as in the special business of teaching, we are much more concerned with people's competencies than with their cognitive repertoires, with the operations than with the truths that they learn. Indeed even when we are concerned with their intellectual excellencies and deficiencies, we are interested less in the stocks of truths that they acquire and retain than in their capacities to find out truths for themselves and their ability to organize and exploit them, when discovered.<sup>15</sup>

Another difficulty with the approach to knowledge that is apparent in the social studies program under consideration is the dependence upon authority rather than upon critical inquiry. The apparent conclusion of a problem once it has been reduced to a simple statement of fact, closes off the pursuit of knowledge. To answer that "Canada is the second largest country in the world" or that "The Canadian Arctic is unlikely to develop because of the lack of agricultural potential," is to inhibit the pursuit of further insights. Such apparent conclusions tend to give the impression that the answer to the problem is known. In the context of the Social Studies 30 examinations such impressions



inhibit active research, restrict any demonstration of creative thought, and ignore the discovery of information that may have been made by particular students, but which conflicts with "official" information.

There is another problem involved with the approach to facts that has been discussed above. It is evident that not all factual statements are of the same kind, yet knowledge of certain facts is essential for the understanding of more complex issues. The feature to be noted, however, is the failure to distinguish between highly reliable statements of fact and much more tenuous statements of fact. Knowledge of both kinds of factual claims may be necessary for understanding certain issues, but to simply assume that all kinds of factual statements can be reduced to one kind is an error that seems to be perpetuated in the Social Studies 30 program.

Factual Statements in the  
New Social Studies

In the Social Studies 30 a factual statement taken from the prescribed text is assumed to be the end of the matter. It would appear that the facticity



of such statements is thought to be confirmed by the triple parallelism of having the official curriculum guide, the authorized textbook, and the final evaluative examination all agree on what is important. This is the method of authority. It is not the method of inquiry which depends upon the confirmation or disconfirmation of truth claims.

Facts in the New Social Studies are perceived as means to an end. It is recognized, however, that even as means, facts have to be carefully scrutinized because, as already indicated, the facts themselves may pose problems. The whole concept of the New Social Studies is involved with considering problem issues<sup>16</sup>--and facts are useful to the extent that they are reliable and contribute to the clarification of issues.

What is not clear from the writings of the proponents of the New Social Studies is whether they are aware of the full complexity of the difficulties involved in arriving at the facts of any given case. The difficulties are recognized, but whether they receive enough attention is a different matter.<sup>17</sup> The following analysis is an effort to reveal the range and complexity of this problem.





Human Experience and  
Statements of Fact

Influences of Personal Experience

Psychologists have long recognized the influence which the personal experiences of the individual play in perception. In the late 1940's Frenkel-Brunswik identified a group of students who were "psychologically rigid." She also described the typical social environment from which such rigid people came. She then hypothesized that there would be a correlation between certain modes of perception and psychological rigidity.<sup>18</sup> Psychological rigidity means:

...the attitude of the subject who replies to any question with black and white answers; who gives replies that are curt and lacking in any shading; who also is generally ill disposed, when examining an object or a person, to recognize in them any clashing traits; and who continually tried, in his remarks to arrive at a simple, categorical and summary view.<sup>19</sup>

Frenkel-Brunswik's study involved 1500 school children between eleven and sixteen years old. Of these children 120 revealed that they were extremely "psychologically rigid." Tests were then given which showed that the psychologically rigid group also



demonstrated a perceptual rigidity. They were shown films in which images gradually changed (for example, a dog gradually became a cat) and it was found that members of the strongly rigid group:

...held more firmly, in general, to their antecedent mode of perception and saw no appreciable change in the figure which was presented to them, even when the changes were already objectively noticeable.<sup>20</sup>

In this situation some students would make the factual statement, "I see a cat." Others would claim that they could see a dog. The difference is apparently explained by the psychological experiences of the individual observers referred to above.

Chance and Meaders report results of experiments which strongly suggest that the needs of individuals play a significant part in their perception of other individuals.<sup>21</sup> They claim that individuals who have "strong needs for security and predictability"<sup>22</sup> in their social relationships appear:

...to have learned that these ends can be achieved by compliance with and sensitivity to the expectations of others. He enhances his feelings of security by seeing both himself and others in terms which lie close to the socially accepted norms of his culture.<sup>23</sup>



Chance and Meaders link this conclusion with another experiment that relates such perception to the rearing of the child, which again reveals the influence of past experience on what the individual claims to see. It would seem, therefore, that it is quite possible for people to make differing factual statements about the same event.

Many other studies support the experimental results discussed above. Mead generalizes the situation when he writes:

...objects are in a general sense constituted within the social process of experience, by communication and mutual adjustment of behaviour among the individual organisms which are involved in that process and which carry it on.<sup>24</sup>

This would suggest that as well as idiosyncratic experiences there may be perceptions common to differing social classes.

### Influences of Social Class

Work by Bruner and Goodman indicated that when coins and grey discs of exactly the same size were compared by children, the coins were invariably judged to be larger than the valueless discs.<sup>25</sup> More significantly, children from poorer homes made exaggerated estimates of the size of the coin in comparison with



the size of the disc. Similar results were obtained when children were shown stamps of the same size, but of varying value. Children tended to claim that the more valuable stamps were larger in size than the less valuable stamps, and children from poorer homes exaggerated the difference. In "factual" terms students would assert that some things are larger than others whereas both objects were the same size. Furthermore, the differences in size which were claimed by the student could be associated with social class.<sup>26</sup>

Spencer beautifully demonstrates the influence of class background in the juxtaposition of two letters written to the London Times late last century.<sup>27</sup> The first letter was a condemnation of the British Government for dismissing one military officer and transferring another because of the parts they played in the execution, without trial, of some Indian rioters. Spencer sarcastically suggested that the punishment was not excessive.<sup>28</sup>

However, a retired civil servant wrote a vitriolic letter which claimed that, "The whole service appears to have been astonished and appalled by the mode in which the officers have been dealt." No reference





was made to the illegal execution of the rioters.

In contrast a second letter, written by a member of the same social class as the first stated:

Five poisoned foxes have been found in the neighbourhood of Penzance, and there is consequently great indignation among western sportsmen. A reward of twenty shillings has been offered for information that shall lead to the conviction of the poisoner.<sup>29</sup>

The death of foxes it seems can be perceived as being a much more significant fact than the death of human beings.

The point of Spencer's examples is that the class attitudes lead to a particular emphasis and a particular statement of fact. It would be peurile to pose the questions: What did the families of the murdered men believe to be the facts of the case? What were the facts in the view of the West Country smallholder who may have been responsible for poisoning the foxes in order to protect his chickens?

#### The Influence of One's Cultural Compulsives

Observational statements made by individuals from one cultural group with reference to other cultural groups are even more subject to problems than any of the types of observations considered to this point.



Calverton argued that when an observer from one cultural group makes observations of another cultural group, whatever he perceives can only be understood in the light of the cultural experiences of the observer.<sup>30</sup> This limitation interferes with the reliability of the observations made by anthropologists.

Two studies done in the same village by reputable anthropologists fully reveal the kinds of factual conflicts that are possible. The following discussion is based on the retrospective considerations of the independent studies of Lewis and Redfield by the latter of the two researchers.<sup>31</sup>

Lewis, who studied a large Mexican village, Tepoztlan, was really replicating an earlier study done by Redfield. Towards the end of his study Lewis writes:

The impression given by Redfield's study of Tepoztlan is that of a relatively homogenous, isolated, smoothly functioning and well integrated society made up of contented and well adjusted people.<sup>32</sup>

A little further on, Lewis suggests the impression which the reader of his own book would probably receive:

Our findings, on the other hand, would emphasize the underlying individualism of Tepoztecan institutions and character, the



lack of co-operation, the tensions between villages within the municipio, the schisms within the village, and the pervading quality of fear, envy and distrust.<sup>33</sup>

Redfield does not believe that the time lapse in the researches was very significant, and Lewis agrees with him. They agree that the differences in the study were due mainly to "the personal factor," which included differences in training and experience. Redfield implies that the most important of the personal factors was the matter of interest. Lewis's concern was with economics and personal dissension, whereas Redfield was fascinated by the ritualistic "meaningfulness to the Tepoztecan of his daily work." But, Redfield then points out:

An account of a little community is not something that is given one as out of a vending machine by putting in the appropriate coins of method and technique. There is no one ultimate and objective account of a human whole. Each account, if it preserves the human quality at all, is a created product in which the human qualities of the creator--the outside viewer and describer--are one ingredient.<sup>34</sup>

Such contradictory positions are certainly not uncommon:

This truth has appeared in other cases in which scientists with different viewpoints on life studied the same community with





contrasting results. One outstanding such case is that of the Pueblo Indians of the American Southwest. Their society has been described by certain well-trained anthropologists as highly integrated, and their typical personality as gentle, co-operative, modest, and tranquil. Other well-trained anthropologists have described the same people as marked by hidden tension suspicion, anxiety, hostility, fear and ambition.<sup>35</sup>

Such studies tend to exaggerate the kinds of conflicts that do occur. It appears that the exaggeration is due to the totally different life ways of subjects being observed. Everything about the culture under observation has to be learned and, as Calverton indicates, interpreted in terms of the life experiences of the observers. Then, as Redfield suggests, the personal interests of the observer, and his training, influence what is taken to be important and how these selected facts are to be organized.

#### Influences of the Situation

There is another possible major source of observational error which is discussed by Lippman. He reports that at the turn of the century a psychology congress was being held in Gottingen when the following incident occurred:

...the door of the hall was thrown open  
and a clown rushed in madly pursued



by a negro, revolver in hand. They stopped in the middle of the room fighting; the clown fell, the negro leapt upon him, fired, and then both rushed out of the hall. The whole incident hardly lasted twenty seconds.

The president asked those present to write immediately a report since there was sure to be a judicial inquiry. Forty reports were sent in. Only one had less than 20% mistakes in regard to the principal facts; fourteen had 20% to 60% mistakes; twelve from 40% to 50%; thirteen more than 50%. Moreover, in twenty-four accounts, 10% of the details were pure inventions and this proportion was exceeded in ten accounts and diminished in six. Briefly, a quarter of the accounts were false.<sup>36</sup>

The report goes on to indicate that the whole scene had been pre-arranged and photographed. It concluded by claiming that ten of the false reports could be relegated to the category of tales and legends, twenty-four reports were called "half legendary," and six appeared to correspond fairly closely with what occurred.

The point about this situation that is significant is that the observers were trained clinicians. They were shocked and surprised, but that does not detract from the fact that some perceived accurately and some did not. It should also be noted that it



is under circumstances analagous to these that many observations are made about situations that are fundamental to the social studies: battles, political arguments, riots, sit-ins, and so on. It is evident that the conditions under which observations are made should be taken into account whenever it is possible. When the conditions of observation are unknown, it is clearly wise to be skeptical about such observations.

#### Four Influences on Factual Statements

This analysis has endeavoured to reveal something of the complexity of the problem of determining the verity of factual statements. It has been shown that there are four broad areas of influence on factual statements which have been described under the following headings: 1. the influences of *one's personal experience*. 2. the influences of social class; 3. the influences of cultural compulsives; 4. the influences of the situation. An awareness of the kinds of influences that are at play when assertions of fact are made will help to reveal the degree of reliability that may be attributed to any particular fact.



### Logical Difficulties With Factual Statements

So far it has been revealed that the empirical evidence suggests that factual statements made about particular occurrences are subject to four broad areas of influence. It seems that there are other grounds for being cautious of factual statements because (a) all statements of fact involve some degree of inference and (b) some expressions of fact, while appearing to refer to individual facts, actually refer to holistic facts which, in some sense, depend upon a great number of individual facts.

### The Simple Statement of Fact

Few philosophers have searched more ardently for certainty than Russell, yet in 1947, at the conclusion of one of his later philosophical works, he wrote "...all human knowledge is uncertain, inexact, and partial. To this doctrine we have not found any limitation whatever."<sup>37</sup> As far as empirical facts were concerned, Russell believed that the statement "this is red" was as close to certainty as it was possible to get, but even an expression of this nature, to qualify for any high degree of security,





would have to be made with reference to a carefully controlled experimental situation. Even under such conditions, however, it is generally admitted that there is no fact in the world of which an observer may become aware simply by the impingement of some sensation on the organs of perception; i.e., the sensation must be interpreted by an individual as being sensations of something.<sup>38</sup>

In certain contexts, such as in laboratory experiments, where there is general intersubjective agreement, doubt about observing particular colours may be pathological. In other conditions, however, "seeing red" may prove to be problematic. Grene writes:

But to call this 'red' puts it into a class of things, a congeries of surfaces assorted in their varying rednesses, yet all 'red'. Outside my window is a white washed wall with a red gutter atop it, and a bit of matching red roof beyond it. Beyond that a tree with reddening print, beyond it again red geraniums in a window base, with one pink one (non-red, off-red?) wilting among its darker neighbours. Even the red geraniums when examined closely are "not the same red". ...clearly, I have here available a whole scale of colours from plainly non-reds through just off-reds to all the shades I should include in 'red', against which I have already tested 'this here' before I call it red.<sup>39</sup>



Her point is that even commonly recognized data may introduce some interesting puzzles.

In order to make the claim that 'this is red' it would be necessary to have learned how to identify 'red'. An observer must be able to categorize particular colours as being red. But 'red', as Grene has indicated, is no monolithic colour, it ranges through a wide spectrum and what some call 'red' others may call 'pink'. Simply stated, an individual has to judge whether a colour is red or pink and although most instances may pose no particular problem, the fact is that the observer must decide that the sensation he receives is red. This involves some process of inference and hence opens up the possibility of error. Thus, in addition to all the specific experiential influences on factual statements, the statement of fact depends on some inferential processes and, hence, there are logical reasons for being skeptical about the possibility of factual certainty.

#### The Problem of Holism

There are many expressions used in the social studies which are either assumed to be (a) understood, or (b) which appear to need only a brief definition in order to be understood. Such words include some



of the most important concepts in the social studies: "law", "economy", "family", "unemployment", and so on. These expressions refer to what Durkheim calls "social facts"<sup>40</sup> and to what MacIver and Page call "institutions".<sup>41</sup> It also seems that Brodbeck's "concept" words<sup>42</sup> come under this heading. The last reference is concerned with expressions like "the Reformation", "the Renaissance", "army morale", and so on. As will be discussed below, it would seem that all these expressions, social facts, institutions, concept words could be placed in a common category of terms which may be called "holistic".

MacIver and Page define institutions as "the established forms or conditions of procedure characteristic of group activity."<sup>43</sup> Durkheim defines social facts as:

...every way of acting, fixed or not, capable of exercising on the individual an external constraint; or again, every way of acting which is general throughout a given society, while at the same time existing in its own right independent of its individual manifestations.<sup>44</sup>

Brodbeck defines a concept word as an expression which has such a wide range of meaning that it is only possible to give precise meaning to the term in the



context in which it is used.<sup>45</sup>

The problem with such terms as "law", "family", "economy", and so on, is that they may appear to be great monolithic institutions that are invariable within a given society. Thus, for example, to claim that the unemployed in Canada represent 6.7 per cent of the work force, simply suggests that approximately seven working people out of every hundred are not gainfully employed. But this does not reveal that in some areas of Canada unemployment is chronic and runs to 16 per cent of the working population. In some parts of the country unemployment may mean that people are entirely dependent upon unemployment insurance to survive; in other parts of the country unemployment may be merely a technicality which enables people employed in seasonal industries to receive benefits between seasons. It is also obvious that unemployment would have a great impact on a family when the single wage earner becomes unemployed, whereas the impact on a family where one of the two adults simply worked for "pocket money" would be minimal.

Three things become apparent in this reference to holistic terms: 1. a general understanding of the term is necessary, hence, following Durkheim, a







study of generally accepted features of unemployment is necessary as well as a study of more technical dimensions such as the legal dimensions of the term; 2. although Durkheim specifically excludes this dimension,<sup>46</sup> it would be necessary to study particular manifestations of "unemployment" to see what it means to various members of society; 3. care must be taken to note the context in which the expression is used. It would appear that these are three methodological principles that apply to understanding such holistic terms as "the law", "unemployment", "marriage", "the family", and so on. It is necessary to use these principles because of the nature of the word itself.

There seems to be no obvious objection to applying these principles to all words which Brodbeck calls "concept" words. Thus, for example, an expression such as "the Reformation" needs to be understood in terms of: (a) its being an expression with a wide range of meaning; (b) it can be illustrated and better understood by revealing the impact of the Reformation on particular societies or even on the lives of particular individuals; (c) the way in which a word is used at any given time depends upon the context in which the word is used, hence, the necessity of



paying attention to the context.

From the perspective of social studies teaching, it is important to recognize the difference in the logic of individual facts and holistic facts. If these distinctions are not revealed, students may fail to understand the nature of the situation that they may be studying.

#### Facts in Context - Some Further Considerations

Logical and empirical reasons have been given for viewing factual statements with some skepticism. It still remains to show that the examples discussed are no mere abstractions which have little practical import for social studies teaching. This section will endeavour to show the importance of recognizing the kinds of factual difficulties that have been revealed in the preceding sections of this chapter.

#### Observation and Current Affairs

Consider, for example, what transpires from the occurrence of an incident, which is reported, from the moment of observation to the time that the incident is recorded. Suppose that a reporter is witnessing a riot, battle, debate, or other social incident of



significance and notes the immediate pressures of the situation. While reporting he may be fatigued, his life may be threatened and there may be all kinds of distractions. Prior to these immediate pressures are the complex of predispositions to perceive according to the observer's class, cultural or psychological experiences. Examples of such influences have already been discussed.

An important difference between the scientist and the reporter becomes apparent in that some reporters are selected because of their political orientations and, therefore, make no effort to avoid the prejudice of their accumulated biases. When newspapers or news journals are used in the social studies, the problem of facts becomes even more complex. Gordon, for example, has discussed in detail what occurs when news is first reported and eventually printed in the newspaper.<sup>47</sup> He pointed out that reporters "know" their editors and editors "know" their readers and he implied that this leads to the assumption that the editor knows which facts the readers would like to read and which not. According to Gordon, the editor likes to please his readers.<sup>48</sup>



It is clear that, given such conditions as those described above, the conscious and subconscious selective tendencies of the reporter and the editor have a powerful influence on what will appear in newspapers and journals. This tendency may be perceived as further accumulation of evidence against a simple acceptance of factual statements as true.

#### From Current Affairs to History

The previous section referred to the problems created by facts in current affairs. But these problems are only the beginning of difficulties in, for example, history. Current affairs become history, but the historian has to work with the facts which he obtains from a variety of sources. Amongst those sources are newspapers, magazines, and journals. The problem can be easily illustrated by reference to the Dominican Affair to which reference has already been made.<sup>49</sup> How would a historian discuss this issue? What 'facts' would he use?

Carr has discussed this issue in relation to what should be a simpler case than the Dominican Affair. He discusses the biography of Gustav Stresemann, the Austrian foreign minister who died in 1929.<sup>50</sup> Stresemann left behind a great quantity of personal





papers including the records of "some hundreds" of conversations with the Russian Ambassador to Austria.

According to Carr these papers have one thing in common:

They depict Stresemann as having the lion's share of the conversations and reveal his arguments as invariably well put and cogent, while those of his partner are, for the most part, scanty, confused and unconvincing. ...the documents do not tell us what happened, but only what Stresemann thought had happened, or what he wanted himself to think had happened.<sup>51</sup>

Stresemann's papers were edited and collected into a biography by a faithful and loyal secretary who emphasized Stresemann's successes and who tended to ignore his failures. Carr points out that it was not Stresemann's secretary who started the process of selecting the facts, but Stresemann himself.

Unfortunately for historians, Carr claims, a shortened version of Stresemann's biography appeared in an English translation.<sup>52</sup> In this volume virtually all reference to Stresemann's main effort, improving relations with Russia, was eliminated, and the book emphasizes the Locarno and the withdrawal of the Allied armies from the Rhineland. Stresemann's successes were remembered and his failures were forgotten.



A similar problem regarding which facts are important is revealed in Trevor-Roper's scathing criticism of Toynbee's A Study of History.<sup>53</sup> Trevor-Roper comments on this "scheming Messiah" who, amongst other infractions against modesty, had given twelve inches of space in the index of his book to the name "Toynbee."<sup>54</sup> The following is an extract of an interview which Toynbee had with Ved Mehta:

"It may sound like double-talk," Toynbee said, reconsidering, "but I don't really believe in objective history, so in the autobiographical volume I tried to put on the table my environment, my prejudices, and my methods...I think it's useful for the readers of my "study" to know that my mother was a historian, my elder sister is a professor of archeology.... it might aid some curious future reader."

"But, surely Trevor-Roper is complaining about autobiographical excesses rather than about facts," I (Ved Mehta) said.

"Yes," Toynbee promptly agreed, "I wrote A Study of History under enormous mental strain. All the time I was writing it, I didn't know if there was time enough in the world to finish it." "Also," he hesitated, "I wrote some of those volumes under fire, when I was having lots of trouble. You see, my first marriage had collapsed affecting me deeply, and... in a sense I never got over it. A tired man is apt to make mistakes."<sup>55</sup>



In these references to Trevor-Roper and Toynbee, the feature that becomes apparent is the tremendously personal nature of the selection of facts. Furthermore, Carr's illustration of Stresemann's choice of facts which were further selected by his secretary, and which were further selected by the English translator, eroded all references to an apparently significant area of Stresemann's work.

Toynbee is surprisingly frank in his admission that his personal problems may have interfered with his academic judgement. He also justifies his use of a lengthy autobiography as a means of revealing to students the prejudices which may be at play in his discussion of material.

It is hoped that sufficient evidence has been provided to indicate that the statements of fact that appear in books can only be there at the expense of other statements of facts which may challenge the conclusions resulting from considering only the statements included. The demand, therefore, that students simply make a fetish of learning and recalling statements of fact deprives the student of an opportunity to get a fuller understanding of what is at stake when he deals with factual issues.



### Compilation of the Textbook

Unlike the historian who may write more than one volume to clarify certain issues, the school textbook writer is forced to compress a great number of issues into one book. It is clear that whatever course he takes in selecting some facts and in rejecting others, the textbook author will be subjected to criticism. It must also be noted that textbooks have to make a profit and in order to do this, they will have to be acceptable to schoolboards and educators. Hence, not only does the textbook suffer from the problem of personal selection of the author, but it must also be influenced by the author's view of what would be acceptable to school boards.<sup>56</sup>

All these difficulties are cited to emphasize the complex problem of arriving at relevant factual statements. A totally different sort of issue is raised if an attempt is made by an author to purposefully present one side of an argument while ignoring the other. A textbook written under such conditions may give the same appearance of reporting the facts as a textbook written without a conscious effort on the part of the author to be a propagandist. Simply





recalling the factual statements reveals neither error nor prejudice. However, it would be the case that if students were familiar with means of checking and comparing factual claims, their methods would be as effective against propaganda as against distortions due to other reasons.

Establishing the Facts  
in the Social Studies

The problem that is apparent from the discussions that have taken place so far should now be obvious. Summarily stated, it is that students who are simply required to recall factual statements may well be able to recall them, but without knowing anything about their verity, validity, or relevance. It has been shown that the student may be called upon to learn some statements which are incorrect, false or irrelevant. After discovering that some of the factual statements he has learned are false or otherwise dubitable, the student will be left in a quandary unless he has also been taught something of the nature of facts. In the light of the discussions that have taken place so far, what can be done to ameliorate this situation?



### Facts in the High School

It would seem that the first necessity for high school students would be to be taught that there are very deep<sup>ly</sup><sub>A</sub> rooted influences which have certain controls over what are alleged to be statements of fact. Thus, it would be necessary to study the influences of psychology, of class, of culture, and of the situation, as have been discussed above. A grasp of the influences on individuals that have an impact on certain statements of fact would provide a better understanding of the various problems of fact in the social studies. A summary of the problems of fact that have already been revealed is indicated below.

1. Alleged facts that are not facts. This problem was revealed in the analysis of particular questions in the Social Studies 30 examination. It was shown that "Canada is the second largest country in the world" was believed to have been false in 1961 when students were asked to rank countries in order of size. In 1966 Canada had apparently become the second largest country in the world. However, due to the absence of temporal referents or other explanations, it was not possible to know why this change had occurred nor was it possible to know if.



the claim regarding the size of Canada had been true in 1961. The impressions received is that students were misled by the 1961 claim, but this impression may be mistaken because of the way that one statement of fact was used to replace another statement of fact without any qualification or explanation. Simply to assert that a fact exists without any other qualification, and to expect students to remember the existence of such alleged facts seems to be strangely inadequate in the educational process.

2. The indirect and inferential way of establishing certain facts. It is only possible to claim that "the Canadian Arctic is unable to support a large population" by considering a body of evidence and by inferring from the evidence that it is the case that "the Canadian Arctic is unable to support a large population". An understanding of these facts is only possible if a student is aware of the evidence considered and if he is aware of the kind of agreement that has been reached amongst recognized authorities.

3. The unreliability of certain reports of fact. Lippmann's report of the observations made in the psychology congress at Gottingen claimed that "...one quarter of the accounts of what was observed were



false." Hence the problem of stating the facts which is faced by war correspondents, newspaper reporters and so on where the problem may be exacerbated because such observers may (also) consciously bias their reports.

4. The selection of certain facts and not others in historical accounts. Carr clearly reveals these problems when he indicates that the facts that a historian uses would, in all probability, have been already selected in some ways before the historian starts his work. The historian would further select some facts and discard others in developing his study. This particular issue is closely related to propaganda when an individual systematically sets about developing a biased perspective.

5. Various descriptions that are true of the same fact. Toch and Smith have cited some fascinating examples of this difficulty which is caused by an observer paying attention to one aspect of a situation and ignoring, consciously or not, other features that may be present. Thus, in a riot observers may report the actions of either students or police without revealing that the actions were actually reactions to some provocation.





6. The acceptance of holistic facts as individual facts. The difficulty raised by this problem of facts is that students are likely to fail to properly understand what is meant by statements relating to holistic facts unless they know something of the nature of holistic facts.

This categorization of problems of facts is not intended to be exhaustive, but it does seem to indicate some of the more prevalent difficulties that occur in social studies education. A systematic discussion of these difficulties will complement the analysis of the various influences that have an impact on the statement of fact in the first place. However, both analyses need to be supplemented by experience with actual situations which involve "facts in use".

#### Facts, Problems and Inquiry

In this chapter it has been argued that courses, such as the Social Studies 30, depend upon authority as the justification for the validity and significance of the facts that have to be learned or the ground that has to be covered. In a problem centred course, on the other hand, the criterion for the selection of



facts is determined by the problem under study. The facts are learned in order that they can be used to shed light on particular problems. Thus, problem centred courses do provide a criterion (other than authority) for locating the significant facts. It is the criterion that those facts which help to clarify an issue are relevant and worthy of consideration.

The idea of a problem also provides students with the possibility of gaining practical experience with obtaining facts. For example, in a problem to do with local government, students could attend various public meetings in order to discover the issues and also in order to find out which factual claims are generally accepted and which are disputed. Such an exercise would probably lead students to the recognition that some factual claims are virtually indisputable. These would include demographic facts, the location of certain buildings, the nature of the terrain, the area of the town, and so on.

On the other hand, some factual claims would be vigorously disputed and the disputes would become apparent in seeking answers to the following sorts of questions: which section of the town is most



heavily taxed in relation to their ability to pay?  
are the town recreational facilities overcrowded?  
can the town afford to pay another member of the  
police force? Answers to all these questions are  
ultimately dependent upon the facts, but on such  
issues there is rarely agreement upon what the facts  
are. Some people would direct attention to some  
facts, others to other facts. Some factual statements  
would be challenged as irrelevant, and some would  
be called false, but rational decisions regarding  
which section of the town to tax most heavily; whether  
to build an extension to the ice-rink; whether to  
increase the police force; and so on, all depend on  
interpreting the situation in the light of the evidence.  
Under conditions such as these the student would soon  
come to realize that all factual claims are conditional  
and contextual and that it is important that he learns  
to recognize the assumptions and inferences that are  
behind even the more secure of fact-claims.

If facts are not self-evident, or there for the  
taking, or dependent on authority, then the procedures  
by which factual statements and alleged factual claims  
can justifiably be made have to be investigated. Thus,  
once one gets beyond subjective reports of one's



personal experiences and tries to deal with the matter of the social sciences, then some forms of interpretation and judgement regarding the products of sensation and perception are clearly required. The general name for such a treatment is "reasoning" or "inquiry", and the process of reasoning or inquiry must take place in the search for and validation of factual evidence.

The next chapter will offer an examination of what seem to be the forms of reasoning implied or recommended by the proponents of the Social Studies 30 and the New Social Studies programs. Furthermore, if the social studies carried on in the schools are to rest on the confirmed findings of the social sciences, (as suggested in Chapter I on the "Discussion of Important terms") then the kind of facts with which the schools are to be concerned, must at least include the sorts of facts used in the social sciences.<sup>57</sup> It will be argued that knowing such facts and some forms of reasoning are inextricably related.





### References

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2. Ibid.
3. Bertha Lawrence, et. al., Canada in the Modern World (Toronto: Dent and Sons (Canada) Ltd. 1955), p. 5-6.
4. Social Studies 30, Departmental Examination Paper, Province of Alberta, 1961, p. 2, p. 4.
5. See Appendix B
6. Lawrence, et. al., Op. Cit., p. 22.
7. Oliver Clausen, "What's This? The Arctic?" in The Globe Magazine, Jan. 13, 1968, pp. 9-12.
8. See Appendix C
9. Time Magazine, Vol. 85, #19, May 7, 1965, pp. 24-28.
10. "Trouble in Dominican Republic," in World Affairs, Vol. 13, #1, September, 1965, pp. 5-6.
11. Ian Sclander, "The Backwater War," in MacLean's, July 24, 1965, p. 21.
12. Ibid.
13. Ibid.
14. Jane Roland Martin, "On the Reduction of Knowing That to Knowing How," in B. Othaniel Smith and Robert H. Ennis, Language Concepts in Education (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1961), p. 61.



It is argued that "knowing that" will appear to be more significant than "knowing how" to Social Studies 30 students, because the examination concentrates on the former questions. It is reasonable to believe that, in the educational process, what receives most emphasis is what is most important.

15. Gilbert Ryle, Concept of Mind (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1962), p. 28.

16. This feature is well developed in Oliver and Shaver's text and Engle emphasizes the need for students to be able to "make decisions" on complex issues. See Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966). Also Shirley Engle, "Decision Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction" in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias, Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Inc., 1964), pp. 28-36.

17. Cautions are uttered about the need to use reliable data and so on, but there appears to be a growing tendency to assume that the facts can somehow be known without too much difficulty. For example, in their recent survey of the New Social Studies movement, Smith and Cox do not discuss the complex problems of arriving at the facts. See, for example, Frederick R. Smith and C. Benjamin Cox, New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1969).

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19. Ibid., p. 101.

20. Ibid., p. 105.

21. June E. Chance and Wilson Meaders, "Needs and Interpersonal Perception", in Hans Toch and Henry Clay Smith (eds.), Social Perception (Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1968), pp. 117-124.

22. Ibid., p. 124.



23. Ibid.

24. G. H. Mead, Mind, Self and Society (Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1934), p. 78.

25. Quoted in W. J. H. Sprott, Social Psychology (London: Methuen, 1952), p. 135.

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27. Herbert Spencer quoted in C. W. Mills, Images of Man (New York: George Brazillier, 1960), p. 52.

28. Ibid.

29. Ibid.

30. V. F. Calverton, (ed.), The Making of Man: An Outline of Anthropology (New York: Modern Library, 1931).

31. Robert Redfield, The Little Community, (Chicago: Phoenix Books, 1959), pp. 132-148.

32. Ibid., p. 134.

33. Ibid.

34. Ibid., pp. 136-137.

35. Ibid.,

36. W. Lippman, "The World Outside and the Pictures in our Heads," in Mills, Op. Cit., p. 39.

37. Bertrand Russell, Human Knowledge - Its Scope and Limits (New York: Clarion Book, 1967), p. 507.

38. As well as the difficulties that are possible through mistaken inferences of what actually is in the world, there is the possibility of hallucination where someone truly believes that he experiences something in the world, but is mistaken. However, for the issue being considered here, it is only necessary to point out the problem of inference.



39. Grene, Op. Cit., p. 162.
40. Emile Durkheim, The Rules of Sociological Method (Free Press of Glencoe, 1962), p. 13.
41. R. M. MacIver and Charles H. Page, Society (London: MacMillan Co., 1961), p. 15.
42. May Brodbeck, "Methodological Individualism" in Wm. H. Dray, (ed.), Philosophical Analysis and History (New York: Harper and Row, 1966), pp. 302-304.
43. MacIver and Page, Op. Cit.
44. Durkheim, Op. Cit.
45. Brodbeck, Op. Cit.
46. Durkheim writes: When the sociologist undertakes the investigation of some order of social facts, he must endeavour to consider them from an aspect that is independent of their individual manifestations. Op. Cit., p. 53. It seems reasonable to suggest that what Durkheim means is that the kinds of studies he suggests would be independent of but complementary to the study of individual manifestations.
47. Donald R. Gordon, Language, Logic and the Mass Media (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Ltd. 1965), pp. 17-24.
48. Ibid.
49. Chapter II, Supra.
50. Edward Hallett Carr, What is History, (London; MacMillan Co. Ltd., 1962), pp. 10-11.
51. Ibid., p. 13.
52. The details of the "slightly condensed" English version of Bernhard's compilation of Stresemann's papers are as follows: Sutton, Gustave Stresemann, His Diaries, Letters and Papers. (1) (1935). Cited by Carr, Ibid., p. 12.





53. This argument is taken from Ved Mehta, The Fly and the Fly Bottle, (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1962), p. 110ff.

54. Ibid., p. 110.

55. Ibid., p. 147.

56. For some conflicting opinions on this issue see G. L. Berry, "The Philosophy of the New Social Studies" in Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine, February, 1968, p. 35; Henry Wilkinson Gragdon, "Dilemmas of a Textbook Writer," in Social Education, Vol. 33, #3, pp. 292-298; also Harold Rugg, That Men May Understand (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co. Inc., 1941).

57. Chapter I, Supra, p. 22.



## CHAPTER IV

### REASONING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

It became apparent in the preceding chapter that different approaches to the treatment of facts were adopted in each of the two programs considered. One approach seemed firmly based on authority, whereas the other approach was based on the consideration of facts as functional in problem solving. To continue the comparison of the two social studies programs an effort will now be made to consider how the process of reasoning is treated in each program.

It will also be the aim of this chapter to develop a line of thought that was intimated in the last chapter, i.e., to show how knowledge of the facts depends upon processes of reasoning. Thirdly, an effort will be made to consider the means whereby the student may be taught to reason effectively.

The second aim of the social studies which is under consideration here is that of enabling students to use reason to solve social problems. This suggests that practical concerns are to be taken seriously



and this, in turn, implies that the process of reasoning will have to be related to the values of a given society. Reasoning is, therefore, not a value free process. The value side of the question will only be briefly treated in this chapter, but in the next chapter the relationship between reasoning and value will be treated in depth.

### Reasoning in the Social Studies 30

It is important to recognize that recall is necessary to reasoning. Without this fundamental ability rational behaviour would be impossible. From the evidence presented in Chapter II it is clear that the student does have the opportunity to become proficient in this procedure. The difficulty with dependence upon recall is that high efficiency at recalling may inhibit the development of other processes such as defining, using evidence, interpreting data, and so on, because the efficient recaller will simply recall the definitions, etc., which he has learned and this obviates the necessity to work through the process. In the Social Studies 30 program this difficulty was accentuated because of the close conformity to the authorized texts which was required of students.



Consequently, it is not always possible to tell when a student simply recalled or when he actually worked something out for himself. Perhaps the same kind of point can be made about any high school program, especially when closely tied to a specific set of textbooks.

If it is assumed, however, that students do not "just memorize", then there is evidence that, within the limits set by the textbooks and the examinations, the students of the Social Studies 30 were introduced to certain processes of reasoning. These processes all emphasize those aspects of thought that can be learned from within a closed system which is established by the authority of the textbook and final examinations. Essentialists have argued that an approach of this nature is a necessary beginning to the development of the rational individual, so from this perspective, the kinds of reasoning pursued in the Social Studies 30 may be sufficient in terms of the stage of education that the student has reached. However, in order to grasp this point it will be necessary to consider the nature of the Essentialist position.

#### The Essentialist Position \*

The dependence on authority which was manifested in the analysis of the Social Studies 30 examination

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\* See Reference # 65 Page 182.





papers, reflects an Essentialist position held by writers such as Wild<sup>1</sup> and Maritain.<sup>2</sup> These writers hold that the school has two main purposes: the transmission of the cultural heritage, and the development of reason. Of the former process Wild writes:

Every effort should be made to present the great ideals of Western Civilization to the child in as sympathetic and appealing a manner as possible.<sup>3</sup>

And of the development of reason, Maritain writes that the aim should be to provide the student with:

...some real, integrated, and articulate, though imperfect understanding...about the nature and meaning of knowledge.<sup>4</sup>

The knowledge that Maritain has in mind is not "grown up" knowledge, but knowledge that is appropriate for the immature person.<sup>5</sup>

The immature nature of the student requires that he takes a clearly subordinate role to the teacher in directing the process of education. It is also apparent that from the Essentialist perspective the rational capacity of the student is strictly limited. Wild writes:

At this level transmission is more important than criticism and discovery. The student is as yet in no position to examine and to



weigh opposed masses of intricate evidence. He can neither understand the ultimate reasons for which he is being taught nor participate as yet in creative research. The teacher is an instructor rather than a guide.<sup>6</sup>

Thus, in these strong assertions of Essentialism there are two forces apparent: one which aims to establish links with the cultural heritage of Western Civilization; and one which provides the student with an introduction to the adult world of knowledge. Both of these forces demonstrate the importance of authority and emphasize the immaturity of the student. Another feature which is common to Wild and Maritain is the emphasis on knowledge as theoretical. One gets the picture of the school being the home of theory, holding an "ivory tower" position in society, while the teachers, who have true authority, transmit the cultural heritage and provide students with the knowledge that they are capable of accepting.<sup>7</sup>

This preparatory role goes on until the student has finished his "specialized training" which, in Maritain's scheme of things, should conclude formally two or three years after a liberal arts degree. Both Wild and Maritain agree that a highly academic program of education is necessary before a person can involve



himself in the affairs of society. Thus, they would clearly deprecate the use of contemporary problems for the development of reason. Wild insists that once the school becomes involved with society, it compromises its position as the home of theory, and this it should not do.<sup>8</sup> In the view of the Essentialists, the school has a well defined place in society, and, like the student who attends the school, its place should be kept.

It would be a mistake to claim that the Social Studies 30 course of studies was a product of Essentialist philosophy, but it is apparent that the Social Studies 30 program as practiced fits into the Essentialist category. The emphasis is on a prescribed body of content and on a series of fairly specific rational processes such as defining, comparing, establishing consistency of conclusions, maintaining coherence of data and so on.<sup>9</sup> All of these processes can be taught in a "theoretical"<sup>10</sup> fashion from the position of authority. The inquiry approach to reasoning, which is an extension of those processes mentioned above, is barely introduced.<sup>11</sup> Such an emphasis on content and skills is consistent with the Essentialist position. The emphasis in the Social Studies 30



course under consideration was clearly on the "rational" side of social studies education, and involvement with particular issues in society was necessarily avoided in order to ensure effective performance in the evaluated aspects of content and skills.

### Reasoning and Types of Questions

The processes of reasoning that were evaluated in the Social Studies 30 program under consideration are discussed below. The discussion is organized according to the question types that were used to analyze the Social Studies 30 examination papers.

#### Type I Questions

Questions that could be reduced to the form: "What does the textbook say about..." as well as simpler processes such as identifying a definition from a list of definitions when both the definiens and definiendum are present, placing locations on maps, and so on.

The Type I questions were clearly dependent on the very basic process of recall which is recognized as such by Bloom, et.al.<sup>12</sup> Even so, a good performance at this level probably indicates more than a student's





ability to recall. If, for example, a student performed well on a particular unit of an examination, it would be reasonable to suggest that he did not merely recall a series of individual items (this is, of course, possible), but that he did grasp the coherence of the unit.

Another feature that is introduced by the Type I questions is that of gaining familiarity with more complex processes. That is, by being asked to identify or recall a definition, students are introduced to the process of defining. The same can be claimed when students are asked to locate on maps cities, mineral deposits, parts, etc. Such procedures introduce students to map reading and give them a familiarity with some aspects of geography which appear to be basic for future development.

## Type II

These are Type I questions with some complicating feature, such as the interpretation of a difficult set of instructions. These questions may also be considered as evidence of a coherent understanding. However, the more complex instructions demand that students interpret what is expected of them and then



carry out the instructions. Thus, it may be that recall is coupled with the recognition of cause and effect relationships, but only after the instructions have been interpreted.

### Type III Questions

These questions involved the interpretation of graphs and charts. Such questions emphasize general comprehension; the ability to analyze material; the ability to compare and contrast data; the ability to identify the relevant and distinguish it from the irrelevant; the ability to categorize and so on. In other words, these questions covered a wide range of processes, but it covered them in a way that was fully consistent with the Essentialist position. That is, the problems were posed by the authorities; the emphasis was on the processes involved in a theoretical issue, and the issues concerned were perceived merely as means for demonstrating ability in using the processes.

### The Type IV Question

This was the short paragraph which only occurred infrequently in the series considered. When these questions were present they emphasized the categories



of defining and describing, and as such they performed an important function. The possibility that the student could recall the definition or description demanded was present, but it was also clear that the student could work out his own definitions and descriptions. The ability to perform these processes is an obvious necessity if one is to act rationally.

#### Type V Questions

This type of question required an outline of an essay for an answer. The value of this question was that the student could outline a position which would suggest such processes as: comparing positions; establishing consistency of conclusions; organizing data; maintaining coherence of data; and so on. However, this question can hardly be described as rigorous because so much has to be assumed in terms of what the student means in the few sentences in which he must establish his outline. However, this very procedure throws an emphasis on the development of succinctness and clarity of expression.

#### The Type VI Question

This was the essay question. While this question has virtually unlimited potential, its form in the



examinations tended to be extremely variable. For example, some essay questions could be treated as extended descriptions; on the other hand, some questions could involve the use of material in order to explain a particular issue. The essay question held the potential for demonstrating the student's ability to analyse, interpret, define, describe, organize, establish conclusions consistent with the arguments presented, and so on. The problem is that essays may be granted high grades by the presentation of direct, coherent, descriptions, whereas complicated explanations may receive a lower evaluation because of some inconsistency that arose as a result of the complexity. What must be noted about the essay is that it has unlimited potential, but when used in an examination its potential may hardly be tapped.<sup>13</sup>

#### Comments on Reasoning in the Social Studies 30

Given the Essentialist tradition, the Social Studies 30 program can be seen as fulfilling certain of its aims: it does provide the student with a body of content; and it does introduce the student to some of the elements of reasoning. If the Social Studies 30 program is perceived as a part of the ongoing





education of the student, then it could be argued that, in terms of Maritain and Wild, the student does start learning to reason. It is true that there is little evidence of any emphasis on the process of inquiry to solve problems, but as is clearly stated by Wild in the quotation cited above, "The student is as yet in no position to examine and weigh opposed masses of intricate evidence."<sup>14</sup> It is clear that in terms of the Essentialist tradition, the Social Studies 30 program that has been analyzed, fulfills its objectives. In terms of the stated objective, however, the aim has only been partially achieved because the second stated aim of the Social Studies 30 is to enable the student to use reason to solve social problems. Skills involved in the process of inquiry, which are essential to problem solving, were hardly mentioned in the examination papers.

#### The Concept of Reasoning in the New Social Studies

The Essentialist position on education perceives the student learning how to reason first and then using his reasoning ability to consider the problems of society. Kaplan has pointed out that man is not



often in this happy position of having all the tools of reasoning available to him, and that these tools have not merely been sharpened by use, but some rational procedures have been discovered in attempting to solve problems.<sup>15</sup> Furthermore, the student is in medias res. There is no postponing some of the problems that he encounters until he has the tools ready to solve them. In any case, Maritain appears to see the high school as a middle rung in the educational ladder and he anticipates the student proceeding from high school, to a liberal arts course in university, and beyond this to specialized training.<sup>16</sup> Most students, however, do not climb to these higher rungs, and if they only receive what the Essentialists advocate they will not have had any opportunity to treat and understand the problems of society in their formal educational experience.

### The Education of the Citizen

The proponents of the New Social Studies take very seriously their aim of developing individuals who can effectively handle problems of society in a rational fashion. They claim that this can be done by selecting problems in which students are interested



and then inquiring into these issues by using processes and data from the social sciences. This provides the two-fold advantage of studying current problems of society as well as introducing students to the disciplined knowledge of the social sciences.

Such programs can only be developed if the teacher is sufficiently free to make choices. The teacher's choices will be made on the grounds which were indicated in Chapter I.<sup>17</sup> Problems or issues to be studied would have to satisfy the following criteria: (a) have potential for systematic academic development; (b) be of interest to serious citizens of a democratic society; (c) attract the interest of students in the hope that they would become actively involved in a search for a solution.

The teacher's role in such a program is different from what his role would be in the Essentialist approach. In the latter approach the teacher is limited by the prescribed curriculum, to the facts as stated by the authorities and so on. In the approach of the New Social Studies, the teacher will necessarily interact with his students, and to be effective, he will have to be creative. However, it would seem that the role of the teacher has been insufficiently



explored in the New Social Studies and, as will be indicated in the last chapter, this is an area that requires further research.

If the model of an ideal citizen in a democratic society really is one of an individual who is aware of the problems about him and who uses reason to try and solve these problems,<sup>18</sup> an interesting educational pattern may be developed which reflects this approach. Presumably an ideal citizen would keep abreast of current affairs, would be aware of developing problems in society, and would study the threatened or real problems as they arise. Such behaviour would enable him to act rationally on most occasions. The citizen, however, must learn this mode of behaviour, and the function of social studies teaching is to develop the student in this fashion.

The study of social problems will proceed slowly at first because it is a learning process, but as familiarity is <sup>e</sup> developed with particular skills so problems will be treated more effectively. The actual skills to be learned will be treated in the next section and this concept of citizenship education will be treated again in this chapter and the next.





### Introduction to the Disciplines

The processes of reasoning which were discussed in the section concerning the Social Studies 30 will be involved in the development of inquiry. But it should be noted that in the Social Studies 30 there is a great emphasis on the process of recall, (i.e., the Type I questions). It is this aspect of the course which the proponents of the New Social Studies would limit. In its stead they would emphasize the process of inquiry.<sup>19</sup> Such processes as defining, interpreting, recognizing coherence in explanations presented by the authorized texts, map reading, and so on, which are demonstrably capable of treatment in the Social Studies 30, will be assumed as achievable in this discussion on the New Social Studies.

The process of inquiry is a step beyond the methods cited above. The emphasis is upon considering the evidence, comparing one authority with another, stating problems, and trying to solve them in ways that are not predetermined by an authorized text. The proponents desire to press beyond the limits which were apparent in the Social Studies 30 program in order that students can determine for themselves in a rational fashion the nature of the problems which



face society. In other words the aim is to teach methods of social inquiry which will be of use to students if they choose to assist in making decisions on social problems in a democratic society.

It is obvious that students who (a) learn the processes of reasoning as discussed in the Social Studies 30, and (b) learn to state problems themselves; seek evidence; test validity of the evidence; compare various authorities; seek the basis upon which the authorities make their judgements; construct and test hypotheses; and so on; will be learning skills and techniques that are functional in all the social sciences. Students will also be gaining a familiarity with the various disciplines when they seek the history of particular problems; consider the social conditions of certain groups of people; or study the physical environment of particular groups. In other words, the problem centred approach to the social studies reveals the possibility of introducing students to both the processes and content of the social science disciplines.

The task which now will be undertaken is a detailed consideration and specification of the process of inquiry which is emphasized in the New Social



Studies program. The place at which a start will be made is a consideration of the facts in order to reveal how knowing the facts is dependent upon some processes of reasoning.

### Statements of Fact and Reasoning

In Chapter III it was argued that the statement of fact may be influenced by a great array of contingent factors which make statements of fact dubitable. It is apparent that if a student is expected to learn the facts as they are portrayed in a textbook in order that he can exhibit his knowledge of these facts on an examination, it is not likely that he will become familiar with the problems of facts. On the other hand, if students are encouraged to arrive at the facts by their own efforts, they are likely to become aware of the difficulties. Moreover, if students are expected to use the facts that they have discovered as evidence which will assist them to come to some conclusion about a particular issue, it is likely that they will gain even more understanding of facts and their use.

Before facts can be used they have to be checked for their validity, verity and relevance. All three dimensions can be accommodated in the New Social



Studies. The public mode of scientific confirmation or disconfirmation of factual data can be effectively undertaken in the classroom. Even when conclusive positions cannot be adopted because of the complexity of the issues, familiarity with the processes involved in seeking to confirm or disconfirm the evidence should prove to be a useful learning experience.

A particularly appropriate problem for inquiry would be one that had specific manifestation as well as being a general problem. Such an issue would be unemployment. In this case there would be available: (a) local evidence; (b) government statistics; (c) claims of opposition parties; (d) journal articles; (e) competing newspaper claims; (f) histories of unemployment; (g) descriptions of specific situations. The particular point of note here is to determine which facts can be used as reliable and relevant to the issue in question. A specific problem would have to be defined in order to determine relevance of factual material (the definition of the problem is a matter discussed below.) However, once the problem is defined, it will become apparent that the definition influences the facts that are considered as relevant.





All kinds of problems are likely to arise in seeking the facts when a variety of sources are used. The conflicts that are discovered will, for best effect, have to be publicly studied and checked. It is likely that conflicts will arise from misinterpretation of statistics, distortion of statistics, misquotation, emphasis on some facts and not others, confusions between national figures and local figures and so on. The possibilities of factual problems seem infinite. Students can only be expected to get to understand their nature if they are given time to consider them and to compare facts from some sources with facts from others. The function of the teacher is to ensure that varieties of statements of fact are available so that students will have the opportunity to determine for themselves the facts which are most reliable.

Knowing the facts is an early step in the process of reasoning because if they are simply learned to be "known" they become what Dewey calls "objects". On the other hand, if as is the avowed aim of the New Social Studies the facts are to be used to clarify some issue, then they become what Dewey calls "data".



Objects are finalities; they are complete, finished; they call for thought only in way of definition, classification, ...etc. But data signify "material to serve"; they are indications, evidence, signs, clues to and of something still to be reached; they are intermediate, not ultimate; means, not finalities.<sup>20</sup>

Data, then, are facts that are considered to be sufficiently reliable for the task in hand, and are to be used in an effort to clarify some issue. Since, however, data are such because of their relevance to a defined problem, it is clear that the definition of a problem is a prior phase in the process of reasoning.

#### The Post-Hole Approach to the Social Studies

Getting to know the facts is one facet of the process of reasoning, but the aim of the proponents of the New Social Studies is to introduce the student to the full process. In terms of practical considerations, it would probably be best if this is done gradually in order to avoid chaos. Berry has suggested a way in which a rapprochement can be made between a traditional social studies program such as the Social Studies 30 and the New Social Studies program. In order to do this he recommends using the "post-hole" method.<sup>21</sup>



The post-hole method was originally an approach devised to teach history, but it can obviously be adapted for the teaching of social studies.<sup>22</sup> The method may be seen as a compromise between the traditional programs based on authority and the problem solving orientation of the New Social Studies. The compromise consists in the acceptance of a curriculum that indicates that a particular area of work should be covered. However, in covering a particular area there is no one textbook (at least in theory), and when conflicts or confusions arise in or between texts, the possibility is available of inquiry into the conflict or confusion. The post-hole experience is an in-depth inquiry into some aspect of the social studies course which proves to be puzzling and which suggests that study would be fruitful.<sup>23</sup>

It would be possible, for example, for a teacher to be discussing the Canadian environment and particularly the Arctic. In so doing differences between the Canadian, Russian and Swedish Arctic regions may become apparent. The reasons for any disparities could be discovered by inquiring into the differences that exist amongst the various Arctic regions under consideration. It is clear that such an inquiry,



if seriously undertaken, would extend the student's knowledge about the Arctic, and, therefore his knowledge of the content of the discipline of geography.

It is also clear that the student will have the opportunity to gain experience in the process of inquiry.

According to Berry, the teacher's task in such a process:

...is to guide, encourage, question, assist, and nourish the learner. He is a resource person and a consultant in the learning process. The student learns by himself, in co-operation with his fellows, or<sup>24</sup> in consultation with his teacher.

Thus, if the process of education recommended by Berry is adopted, even though the change is not radical, the role of the teacher becomes that of "guide" not, as he was in Wild's scheme of things, an "instructor."<sup>25</sup>

### The Process of Inquiry

It will have been noted that for Berry<sup>26</sup> the process of inquiry is of central importance and he embraces Dewey's belief that:

The existence of inquiries is not a matter of doubt. They enter into every area of life and into every aspect of every area. In everyday living, men examine; they turn things over intellectually; they infer and judge as naturally as they reap and sow, produce and exchange commodities.<sup>27</sup>





More than this, Berry accepts Dewey's general formulation of the process of inquiry, but he discusses his own modification of problem solving under the following headings:

- Recognition
- Definition
- Stating Hypotheses
- Collection and Analyses of Information
- Tentative Conclusions
- Application.<sup>28</sup>

Later in his book Berry states Dewey's own formulation, but he does not indicate that the first item of his own model adopts a different emphasis from the first item of Dewey's.

Berry believes that recognizing problems takes very little time.<sup>29</sup> He emphasizes that each step in the problem solving method he outlines varies in time, but he does not state that the variations in time are not due to any particular step in the model. The variations in time in each step of the process of problem solving are due to the particular complexities of the problem being treated. Thus, a state of confusion may be relieved by a quick recognition of a problem and followed by a long process of problem solving; or a state of confusion may be extremely difficult to state in terms of a problem, but once stated



the whole difficulty may be easily dissipated.

On this issue of stating the problem, Berry has much in common with contemporary writers of the social studies. For example, Clements recommends the following model.

1. Invent a mystery. Identify a heuristic question.
2. Find ideas that may be used in the formation and clarification of questions.
3. Using the chosen ideas, translate the heuristic question into general questions which literally direct inquiry.
4. Translate the general questions into particular questions which focus attention upon evidence.
5. Engage in cross examination of evidence.
6. Write concluding reports or accounts of what has been done, seen, heard, or discovered.<sup>30</sup>

The "invention of a mystery" seems to be treated as a fairly minor part of teaching the method of inquiry. It would appear that it is often performed by the teacher. In so doing he deprives the student of a significant part of the process of inquiry. Hedley asserts that the idea that anyone can think of a problem that needs to be clarified reflects a tendency



that is not only apparent in social studies education amongst teachers and curriculum developers, but it is also apparent amongst social scientists. Of the latter he writes that they:

...manufacture problematic situations in the abstract rather than forming the problem out of existential situations..... The problematic situations of social inquiry must derive their terms from specific indeterminacies arising from existential social relationships in order to insure that the proposed operations will actually effect a change in the initial situation. To begin with a problem is to reduce the process of inquiry to a matter of simple deduction.<sup>31</sup>

Dewey placed great emphasis on the first stage of the five phases of inquiry which he outlined as follows:

- I The Antecedent Conditions of Inquiry:  
The Indeterminate Situation
- II Institution of a Problem
- III The Determination of a Problem  
Situation
- IV Reasoning
- V The Operational Character of  
Facts - Meaning.<sup>32</sup>

In another place he writes that the following "states of thinking" are discernable in "Reflective Thought":



...1. suggestions in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution; 2. an intellectualization of the difficulty or perplexity that has been felt (directly experienced) into a problem to be solved, a question for which the answer must be sought; 3. the use of one suggestion after another as a leading idea, or hypothesis, to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material; 4. the mental elaboration of the idea or supposition as an idea or supposition (reasoning in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole of inference); and 5. testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action.<sup>33</sup>

Both quotations reveal that, for Dewey inquiry begins prior to the statement of the problem. This is an emphasis that is frequently missing in the works of contemporary social studies writers.

Dewey's general formulation has been accepted by writers such as Massialas who states:

The teacher tries to create a classroom climate which is conducive to critical thinking. His approach generally follows these phases: the creation of a problem; the identification, definition, and clarification of the problem; the forming of alternative hypotheses; the testing of the hypotheses and their implications; the acceptance of a tenable generalization or conclusion.<sup>34</sup>

Fenton<sup>35</sup> recognizes his debt to Dewey as does Taba.<sup>36</sup>





Engle sees the function of the social studies as that of enabling the student to make decisions on crucial issues. This involves the process of inquiry, but like Berry and Clements, Engle also implies that the issues to be considered are fairly obvious.<sup>37</sup> The teacher can state them and the student, with the teacher's guidance, can solve them.

Apart from the tendency to underestimate the importance of Dewey's first phase, there is wide agreement between Dewey and proponents of the New Social Studies, at least as far as dealing with facts in the social studies is concerned. It is generally accepted that the process of reasoning as discussed above is a necessary condition, though not a sufficient condition, for the consideration of problems in a democratic society. In order to consider what other conditions have to be satisfied to deal with social problems in a democratic society, attention will be directed to the work of Raup, et. al.<sup>38</sup> and Oliver and Shaver.<sup>39</sup>

#### Inquiry in a Democratic Society

Both Raup, et. al. and Oliver and Shaver emphasize the need to recognize the democratic community as



the sphere within which problems are solved.<sup>40</sup> This community has a set of values which comes into play when decisions about social problems are made.<sup>41</sup>

The contribution of the two groups of writers under consideration here is that they discuss methods for the treatment of value problems which may be useful contributions to classroom procedures.

### Classroom Approaches to Value Problems

Oliver and Shaver seem to assume the Deweyan position as far as dealing with facts is concerned. Their model of problem solving is, therefore, mainly concerned with the treatment of the values in conflict:

1. Abstracting general values from concrete situations
2. Using general value concepts of dimensional constructs
3. Identifying conflicts between value constructs
4. Identifying a class of value conflict situations
5. Discovering or creating value conflict situations which are analogous to the problem under consideration
6. Working toward a general qualified position



7. Testing the factual assumptions behind a qualified value position
8. Testing the relevance of statements.<sup>41</sup>

Raup, et. al., who adopts Mumford's model of problem solving, treats the factual dimension in a rather cursory fashion. However, enough has already been written about the problem of facts and the statement of the problem to be aware of this initial difficulty which seems to apply to Mumford's model. Mumford's model is stated by Raup, et. al. as follows:

1. ...a systematic fact gathering, all relevant data
2. ...the critical outline of needs and activities in terms of social ideals and purposes
3. ...imaginative reconstruction and projection
4. ...execution<sup>42</sup>

Both Oliver and Shaver<sup>43</sup> and Raup, et. al., emphasize the fact that within the democratic community there are various groups with competing interests and different value orientations. Both groups of writers also emphasize the responsibility of each individual to consider the problems of the democratic society of which he is a member.<sup>45</sup> Because of the different orientations of individuals and groups there is, in the view of Raup, et. al., the need for them to express



their feelings about the problems they face.<sup>46</sup> It is also necessary for individuals and groups to express their views about the most satisfactory solutions to them.<sup>47</sup> It is here that individual perspectives come into the open and the character of the community is revealed. Both Raup, et. al., and Oliver and Shaver indicate that in a democratic society there:

...is a frank recognition that social action is caught up in the struggle of competing groups to shape the world in the light of their competing perspectives.<sup>48</sup>

The willingness to discuss these competing perspectives and the willingness to make efforts to accommodate the positions of minority groups without coercion is, in Raup's view, one of the signifying features of a democratic community.<sup>49</sup> The point made by both groups of writers is that if this opportunity for the consideration of conflicting opinions is not granted in school, it will probably be too late as far as a democratic society is concerned, to simply expect adults to start considering these issues after they have left school.





### Moods and Techniques

It is Raup, et. al., and this group alone, which emphasizes the need for a "cooling off" period to take place after the facts and the values have been revealed and discussed. They supplement their initial model with another which emphasizes the moods of consideration: (a) the indicative mood which amounts to the establishment of the values of the case; (b) the optative mood which is an assessment of the values involved and the goals that are possible; (c) the contemplative mood which is the period when disputants relax and make themselves receptive to new ideas, differing perspectives, and other aspects of the issue; (d) the imperative mood which is the mood in which the operation is carried out--a mood which is as demanding of strategy and tact as any of the preceding moods.<sup>50</sup> Clearly a person who was seriously concerned about a problem would in any case adopt these moods as he shifted from one strategy to another. It is to the merit of Raup, et. al. that they bring these moods to the attention of the educator.

Whereas Raup, et. al., introduce the idea of "moods" as a feature of their general method. Oliver



and Shaver introduce certain techniques which can be used in considering the value issues. Some of these parallel the work of Raup and his associates, others are new. In particular their use of value constructs and their use of analogy appears to hold much promise for the consideration of values in a classroom situation.

Oliver and Shaver introduce what they label a "dimensional construct" as a means of introducing students to certain kinds of value problems. They write:

Dealing with values as constructs allows us to conceptualize the higher value, human dignity, as a "blend" or amalgamation of values attained through compromise. In a particular value conflict we seek such a compromise, recognizing that everyone cannot be satisfied. Moreover, the resolution of a problem does not usually dissolve the value conflict; it rather adjusts a situation to the interests of the debating parties. But adjustment does not necessarily mean that the basic value of human dignity has been diluted or violated; it may in fact mean that we have come closer to it.<sup>51</sup>

Examples of the construct are

Freedom of speech	-	Censorship
Equal opportunity	-	Caste system
Christian brotherhood	-	self interest <sup>52</sup>



The dimensional construct is the key to Oliver and Shaver's resolution of conflict situations. It is apparent that a problem that is rationally solved so that the values in conflict are settled in such a way as to be in greater accord with the principle of respecting human dignity is a "good" resolution.<sup>53</sup> Thus, for example, if a problem involving a case of economic discrimination due to racial matters is resolved so that the economic opportunities of the discriminated person are improved, then the problem has been solved successfully.<sup>54</sup>

Oliver and Shaver also argue that an appropriate and useful way of grasping value conflicts is by directing the attention of students to situations that are similar to the problem under study. Thus, in a problem involving discrimination or segregation (issues clearly of importance in contemporary society), Oliver and Shaver suggest a study of the violations of English law by colonists before the American Revolution. The issue may then become reduced to

...one of violation of the rights of man by legally constituted government versus violation of the law in protection of these rights.<sup>55</sup>



This identifies a specific type of value conflict.

The next development in Oliver and Shaver's position is a valuable contribution of the use of analogy to classroom activities. Having identified a particular type of value conflict, they endeavour to establish a series of analogies of real or hypothetical situations which involve the same value conflict.<sup>56</sup> Analogies are used not as arguments, but as means of locating inconsistencies in value positions. Thus, in their example they suggest that it is likely that most Americans would support the English colonists in America during the Revolution. However, continue Oliver and Shaver, it is unlikely that most Americans would support comparable actions by Negroes in Mississippi even though the issues are similar.<sup>57</sup> It is obvious that an important function of the use of analogy is to locate inconsistencies in the positions of particular individuals.

#### Inquiry and Action in the Social Studies

It has been assumed that the kind of reasoning processes which were revealed to be present in the Social Studies 30 must be known or must be learned pari passu with the mode of inquiry advocated by





proponents of the New Social Studies. However, the final phase of problem solving in Dewey's process, "testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action,"<sup>58</sup> does not appear to receive much consideration.

One reason for this lack of emphasis is that inquiry may be perceived only as the process of getting to know the problem. For example, in considering the problem of the O.A.S. intervention in the affairs of the Dominican Republic, it is only possible to arrive at some hypotheses with regard to what happened; to compare the hypotheses with the evidence; to consider the hypotheses in relation to subsequent occurrences in Latin America and so on. It may be impossible to really discover what happened in the Dominican Republic, but the problem would have been inquired into and some familiarity would have been gained with the earlier stages of the process of inquiry. Presumably, also, the knowledge acquired in the process of inquiry will have assuaged some of the puzzlement over what occurred in the Dominican Republic. Many of the issues considered in the social studies will necessarily be of this nature. As a result inquiry may provide an understanding of the issues, but it



would be misleading to claim that problems had been solved.

Some practical results may well derive from an apparently purely theoretical study. For example, if a study of Arctic development revealed to students in the North West Territories that the Canadian government was being negligent, they may well set about persuading their parents to reconsider their political affiliation. With the reduction of voting age to eighteen, such study in school may indeed precede action in the sense of voting on the part of the student. In fact, such a procedure would reflect the habit of a serious citizen.

It may be the case, however, that it is not possible to act as a serious citizen in a democratic society on all occasions simply by casting a ballot. Thus, for example, students may pursue their study of civic government by endeavouring to get the civic government to perform some additional services to the town. Such additional services may involve the establishment of drug centres; the opening of school machine shops for use of students during the summer vacation; or the development of a more efficient procedure for garbage disposal.



The process of inquiry which concludes that some action must be performed is not complete until the action has been performed and the results considered. Thus, to decide to persuade a civic government to provide some service (deemed necessary as the result of inquiry) involves the further task of persuading the civic government to act. Here it would be necessary to operate in Raup, et. al.'s "imperative mood" in order to gain experience in the carrying out of decisions.<sup>59</sup>

It is not necessary to gain experience in such ambitious programs as those listed above, although in recent months each one of the projects listed has been the matter of debate in civic council meetings as the result of student pressure. Raup, et. al., writing before the time of student activism in its contemporary dress, suggested that decisions made by students themselves can be used to obtain practical experience:

An appropriate particular case of a decision might be that in which the president of the student body of a school, empowered to appoint officers and committees for important functions, must decide which of two or three persons shall be made editor of the school



newspaper. We need only suggest the forces which come into play as the president moves toward a decision. In addition to the qualifications for the position, there are athletic popularity, faculty preferences, clique demands, fraternities, the personal acceptability of the individual...must all ...be operating in the president's mind as he seeks to decide upon the appointment.<sup>61</sup>

Decisions on this kind of issue may take days or weeks, but some issues must be decided rapidly. Raup, et. al., point out that this implies that students must have the opportunity to make decisions in order that practice and experience will help them develop the ability to decide rapidly.<sup>62</sup> In order to gain further familiarity it would be a useful educational task to retrace the process, consider improvements, and analyze the consequences of decisions made and carried out.

Current trends in education offer more opportunity for involvement with society beyond the school. Student groups are active in United Nation Societies, World Federalists, the traditional local organizations, as well as in local activist groups which range from social involvement with the underprivileged to various forms of political agitation. Consistent with the





view that the school should capitalize on the experiences of the students, it is clear that an analysis of the activities involved in putting decisions into operation would play a vital role in the inquiry approach to social problems.

Reasoning as a Social Process  
Dependent on Social Values

One of the criticisms made of using the process of inquiry to solve social problems is that it is a technique and that the solving of social problems cannot be reduced to a matter of technique. A very clear manifestation of social inquiry reduced to a research technique is demonstrated by Ackoff.<sup>63</sup> However, Ackoff is aware of what he is doing. He indicates in the preface of his work that his concern is with the development of solutions to problems after the problems have been selected. Furthermore, his concern is with proposing various courses of action and in selecting one of them as being most likely to satisfy the needs of the people involved. Ackoff's work, however, was limited to the performance of certain technical aspects of the process of inquiry. The problem was presented and the sorts of solutions



that were required were clearly suggested.

The problem of value which was raised by Oliver and Shaver and Raup, et. al., again becomes significant. Technical research can reveal all kinds of evidence and insights, but people have to indicate their confusions and ultimately people must choose the solution that, amongst other things, attracts them. Different people state problems in different ways so that when social action is taken to solve problems, it is necessary to take account of these differences.

It was indicated in the discussion of facts that arriving at the facts of the case involved public analysis of the facts. The same sort of thing is necessary in treating problems and seeking solutions. The public analysis of facts, problems, and solutions, is a social process that involves debate. It is not a process that can be taken over by scientists qua scientists, but this is not to deny that scientists can and should participate in every stage of the process of inquiry in order that the skills and techniques at their disposal can be of assistance to all those involved in social problems.



When social inquiry becomes a social process, as has been suggested in parts of this chapter, and will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, advantages may accrue to the process of inquiry. For example, public debate over what exactly are the facts of the case is more likely to lead to reliable knowledge of the facts than the simple acceptance of the facts as alleged by a single scientist or official.

The problem of what is the problem is also a matter that can be aided by public debate. For example, in conflicts over public aid to religious schools, Catholics state their problem in one way and public school supporters state it in another way. By setting up a committee comprising both parties, (a) one problem may be defined; (b) various hypotheses can be proposed; (c) the hypothesis most likely to bring greatest satisfaction to both parties can be arrived at. Item (c) is not simply a matter of scientific calculation. It is a matter of taking account of the value complexes of the parties concerned and of arriving at the best solution under the conditions that prevail. As yet, there seems to be no technique



that can perform this task.

However efficient techniques become, the values of science itself still demand the publicity of the methods of inquiry. It is the public nature of scientific inquiry that diminishes the problem of bias in selecting facts, defining problems, or proposing solutions. In other words, the demand that inquiry into social problems remains a public social process is a demand that rests upon a twin base: the first is that people involved in or affected by a problem should have a say in its solution; and the value basis of science itself which insists on the public nature of verification or refutation.

The existence in a democratic society of various groups of people with differing value orientations has already been recognized and processes have been discussed that may lead to an amelioration of conflicts due to these differing orientations. As Baier has indicated, however, there are laws and customs in society which provide the citizen and scientists with further considerations and guidance which must be taken into account when making decisions on social issues.<sup>64</sup>





A social problem cannot be reduced to a technique of inquiry because human values play too great a part in the process of decision making. The problem now to be faced is whether this complex of values is so great that it completely overwhelms dependence on reason. If the question is asked, "What shall I do?", the obvious answer is, "the best thing." But if "the best thing" is dependent on the capricious desires of individuals, how is it possible to arrive at a rationally justifiable position which may be called "the best"?

As far as a democratic society is concerned the answer has already been intimated. It is that the best decisions on social problems are those which are rationally made, but which are guided by the concept of respect for one's fellow men.<sup>65</sup> But what this means, how such a position can be justified, and how it can be taught in schools are issues that now have to be considered.



### References

1. John Wild, "Education and Human Society: A Realistic View," in Nelson B. Henry, (ed.), Modern Philosophies and Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), pp. 17-56.

2. Jacques Maritain, "Thomist Views on Education," in Henry, (ed.), Op. Cit., pp. 57-90.

3. Wild, Op. Cit., p. 36.

4. Maritain, Op. Cit., p. 61.

5. Ibid., p. 60.

6. Wild, Op. Cit., p. 44.

7. Ibid., pp. 28-30.

8. Ibid.

9. An abridged list of reasoning skills using the expressions taken from the Social Studies 30 Curriculum Guide includes: reading a variety of articles, charts, and maps; reading for detail, reading to obtain general ideas; appraising various written materials; determining consistency; analyzing conflicting statements; making inferences; drawing conclusions; making generalizations; organizing and preparing reports; setting up periods and categories; organizing events in sequence; establishing causal relationships. There is evidence that these reasoning skills, as well as the skills cited in the body of the work, were evaluated to some extent over the ten year period. However, the skills which were most often evaluated over the ten year period considered are discussed under the headings of Type I, Type II, etc. For a detailed list of these skills see Alberta Department of Education, Senior High School Curriculum Guide (Province of Alberta: Edmonton, 1955), pp. 8-9 and pp. 18-20.



10. The expression "theoretical" in this context is intended to indicate that processes could be taught without reference to the actual experiences of students. Defining, comparing, maintaining coherence, etc., would probably be taught as abstractions and would not be related to particular incidents in the life of the student. They would be procedures taught by the teacher or learned from the texts.

11. The skills of inquiry are recognized among those activities involved in the social studies. See Curriculum Guide, p. 19. However, there is little evidence that the skills were evaluated in the examinations.

12. Benjamin Bloom, et. al., A Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1956).

13. This issue is discussed in Chapter VI, Infra.

14. The point here, of course, is that if a student is incapable of handling evidence, he is obviously not able to use reason to solve problems.

15. Abraham Kaplan, The Conduct of Inquiry (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964), pp. 398-399 and pp. 401-403.

16. Maritain, Op. Cit., pp. 80-81.

17. Chapter I, Supra., p. 24.

18. The value dimension and concept of the serious citizen will be discussed in Chapter V.

19. It should be noted that some psychologists have argued that the tendency to concentrate on the recall of specific items may have an adverse effect on the development of more complex skills and may inhibit the development of sophisticated concepts. See Lee J. Cronbach, "Evaluation for Course Improvement" in Norman Gronlund, (ed.), Education and Psychology (New York: MacMillan Co., 1968), p. 39; Michael Scriven, The Methodology of Evaluation (Lafayette: Social Science Education Consortium #110, 1966, pp. 11-12.



20. John Dewey, Quest for Certainty (New York: Minton Balch Co., 1929), p. 99.

21. Martin Mayer, Social Studies in American Schools (New York: Harper Row Publishers, 1962), p. 43.

22. Ibid.

23. It would seem that the principles for selecting problems apply in this case. Such problems should: (a) have potential for systematic academic development; (b) be of interest to serious citizens of a democratic society; (c) attract the interest of students in the hope that they would become involved in a search for a solution to the problem. Supra., p. 26.

24. Gerald L. Berry, "The Philosophy of the New Social Studies," in the Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine, February, 1968, p. 35.

25. Supra.

26. Gerald L. Berry, Problems and Values (Canada: J. M. Dent and Sons, Limited, 1966), Experimental Edition, p. 5.

27. John Dewey, Logic: The Theory of Inquiry (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1938), p. 102.

28. Berry, Problems and Values, pp. 5-7.

29. Ibid., p. 5.

30. Millard Clements, "The Disciplines and the Social Studies," in J. Fair and F. Shaftel, (eds), Effective Thinking in the Social Studies (Washington, D. C.: National Educational Association, 1967), p. 71.

31. W. Eugene Hedley, Freedom, Inquiry, and Language (Scranton: International Textbook Co., 1968), p. 59.

32. Dewey, Logic, pp. 105-114.

33. John Dewey, How We Think (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1933), p. 107.





34. Byron Massialas, "Teaching History as Inquiry" in Shirley Engle (ed.), New Perspectives in World History (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964), pp. 636-637.

35. Edwin Fenton, Teaching the New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966).

36. Hilda Taba, "Implementing Thinking as an Objective in the Social Studies" in Fair and Shaftel, Effective Thinking in the Social Studies, p. 31.

37. Shirley Engle, "Decision Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction," In Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias (eds.), Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1964), pp. 28-35.

38. Bruce Raup, et. al., The Improvement of Practical Intelligence (New York: Harper Brother, 1950).

39. Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver, Teaching Social Studies in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966).

40. See, for example, Ibid., pp. 126-136; also Raup, et. al., Op. Cit.,

41. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

42. Raup, et. al., Op. Cit. p. 43.

43. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit., passim.

44. Raup, et. al., Op. Cit., passim.

45. This issue is developed in Chapter V. Infra.

46. Raup, et. al., Op. Cit., pp. 92-98.

47. Ibid.

48. Ibid., p. 56.

49. Ibid., passim.



50. Ibid., pp. 110-117.

51. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.

52. Ibid.

53. The concept of human dignity will be considered in Chapter V.

54. It is important to retain the distinction between solving a particular problem and treating a pervasive difficulty. Thus, the problem is not solved in isolation. The best solution to a particular problem would be (a) the elimination of the difficulty and (b) the establishment of an approach which will help ameliorate the more pervasive difficulty.

55. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit., p. 128.

56. Ibid., p. 119.

57. Ibid., p. 128.

58. Dewey, How We Think, p. 107.

59. Raup, et. al., Op. Cit.

60. Ibid., p. 199.

61. Ibid.

62. R. L. Ackoff, The Design of Social Research (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965).

63. Kurt Baier, The Moral Point of View (New York: Random House, 1966), pp. 72-78.

64. This point is well made by Oliver and Shaver in their discussion of a "dimensional construct". See Supra.

65. Wild and Maritain are included under the heading "Essentialist" since it is a broader category than, "Perennialist". See J. S. Brubacher, A History of the Problems of Education (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1966).



## CHAPTER V

### RESPECT FOR PERSONS AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

It was possible to start Chapters III and IV of this work by discussing the differing approaches to facts and reasoning that were adopted in the Social Studies 30 and the New Social Studies. What was meant by "facts" and "reasoning" became apparent as the ways in which the respective terms were used in the two approaches to the social studies. The expression "respect for one's fellow men", however, seems more obscure than either "facts" or "reasoning" so it was thought necessary to consider this concept of respect before seeking for the ways in which it was manifested in both programs.

The place of values in problem solving has already been referred to in the previous chapter. It is now necessary to consider this question further in order to determine what exactly is the relationship between reason and respect for persons. As well it is necessary to consider what methods are being used, or can be used, in order to enable students to respect



their fellow men.

### Respect for Persons

The expression "respect for one's fellow men" is used here synonymously with the "concept of human dignity", "respect for man", "human respect", and so on. In the Social Studies 30, and in the New Social Studies programs, the expression is invariably used in relation to a democratic community. It is clear that in the views of the members of both groups of writers who refer to the concept of respect, they see it as the defining feature of a democratic society.

Oliver and Shaver, as proponents of the New Social Studies, consider the concept of human dignity as the basic common value of a democratic society from which stem:

...concepts such as property rights, free speech, freedom of religion, freedom of personal association and privacy, rejection of violence and faith in reason as a method of dealing with conflict, the general welfare of all, equal opportunity under the law, rule of law, or constitutional limits on government, rule by consent of the government, due process of law, separation of powers, and local control of local problems.<sup>1</sup>





Proponents of the Social Studies 30 program go into much more detail in order to establish the same position.

Of the Social Studies 30 materials it is Bulletin I<sup>2</sup> which deals with the concept of respect for one's fellow man. It was pointed out in Chapter II that reference to the third stated aim of the Social Studies 30 could be found in items #1, #4, #5, and #6 of the aims cited in Appendix A.<sup>3</sup> Item #1 is simply the broad statement of the necessity of respect for the individual in a democratic society.<sup>4</sup>

Item #4 is a reference to the rights and duties of a citizen in a democratic state. It is asserted that inasmuch as an individual enjoys the privileges of democracy he has a concomitant<sup>m</sup> responsibility to carry out certain duties. These responsibilities are incumbent upon him as a citizen and if he ignores them he breaks "...his contract with society,"<sup>5</sup> and he obviously threatens his own status as a free citizen of a democratic state. There is no doubt that this item is intended to emphasize the duties of citizenship which refer to features such as voting, attendance at public meetings, willingness to serve in public office and so on.



Item #5 is a more specific statement of responsibility to those who are "less fortunate."<sup>6</sup> The most obvious manifestation of this responsibility as it is stated in this item is that of being willing to support those who cannot maintain themselves. A feature which is emphasized in the discussion of this issue is the point that the serious citizen is concerned with the welfare of the individual in the state. The implication being that if individual welfare is looked after, the state will also be looked after:

General welfare is, therefore, not state welfare in any real and lasting sense. It is actually the welfare of the fellow men of our community and as such is the concern of true humanitarianism.<sup>7</sup>

Item #6 is a statement of the civil liberties which must be defended in a democracy.<sup>8</sup> They include: freedom of speech, religious liberty, impartial justice, trial by jury, freedom of choice in vocation and home life and so on. It is emphasized that while these freedoms are enjoyed by the majority of Canadians it is essential that less fortunate minority groups should also be given the opportunity to enjoy such freedoms. As in many other aspects of this Bulletin (which was published in 1949) a certain "progressive" air is apparent.



The Curriculum Guide<sup>9</sup> locates certain commonly held prejudices and asserts that the teacher should deal with:

Such statements as the following which reflect attitudes that derive from widely accepted opinion in our culture: "Orientals have a lower standard of living giving unfair competition to Canadian labour", "Increase of population in Canada would create unemployment," "Foreigners are unreliable politically and a threat to our government", "There is insufficient land for larger groups of people." It is the problem of the school to examine the validity of these by the evidence developed objectively in Social Studies.<sup>10</sup>

Perhaps these statements have a ring of the 1950's about them, but as they are suggestions of what may be studied they must be interpreted--simply because significant problems change with the times. In fact the Curriculum Guide, when discussing what should be studied, states:

The topic may be suggested by the instructor, but it is preferable that the pupils be trained to select suitably substantial and appropriate topics themselves.<sup>11</sup>

It is clear that topics are expected to be relevant.

The assumption upon which both social studies programs are based is clearly that the concept of



human respect is basic to democratic society. Various arguments have been developed in order to justify this position, and a few of these will be mentioned below. In the ensuing discussion on justification, an effort will be made to reveal the type of behaviour which would be considered as manifesting respect for one's fellow men.

#### On the Nature of Human Respect

It was revealed in the last section that proponents of both social studies programs would agree that the idea of respecting one's fellow men is a defining feature of a democratic community. Regardless of accepting this definition, other writers have sought to justify respect for persons by citing the traditions of brotherhood that have been established by the great ethical systems.<sup>12</sup> Other writers develop more sophisticated arguments to arrive at a similar position.

Kant derives the notion of the categorical imperative from postulating the concept of an "ideal will", but since man can only have certain notions of what an ideal will would entail, Kant needed to look further. He did this by postulating that the nearest a mortal could get to an ideal will was a will that acted only







from duty. Kant writes:

Since I have robbed the will of every inducement that might arise for it as a consequence of obeying any particular law, nothing is left but the conformity of actions to universal law as such, and this alone must serve the will as its principle. That is to say, I ought never to act except in such a way that I can also will that my maxim should become a universal law.<sup>13</sup>

The principle of a universal law requires that each person who chooses to be moral treats all persons equally, and this includes himself as a person. For Kant the moral person is he who obeys the categorical imperative.

Scriven goes on to justify Kant's position by claiming that this insight can be supported on practical grounds and it is this position which will be considered most closely here.<sup>14</sup> In his support of Kant's position, Scriven distinguishes between two moral positions, and this distinction has important educational implications.

Scriven defines a community as moral "...insofar as it accepts the principle that every person has equal rights...."<sup>15</sup> He then goes on to distinguish between a strong and a weak morality:



Weak morality involves the recognition of the rights of others but no positive interest in furthering their welfare other than by such recognition: strong morality involves identification with the interests of others. The first is the domain of obligation, the second of supererogation;<sup>16</sup>

It is the strong morality that Scriven attempts to justify.

Scriven's arguments are that embracing a strong morality would lead to a way of existence that is superior to the ways of existence manifested by societies which are rational, but which do not demand recognition of morality in the strong or weak sense. In support of his contention Scriven supplies arguments which show: (a) that life expectancy would be greater in a moral community;<sup>17</sup> (b) that productivity would be greater because moral men would need much less surveillance than men who did not respect others;<sup>18</sup> and (c) that a moral society which habituated men to satisfy unselfish desires offers more opportunity for the satisfaction of these desires than a community which permitted people to satisfy their selfish desires.<sup>19</sup>

The foregoing statements which are argued for by Scriven indicate why one should embrace a strong



morality. If this view of strong morality is accepted some important implications are apparent from an educational point of view. The schools are not simply required to reveal what the duties of a citizen are in terms of the statutes. On the contrary, in the strong sense of morality, the teacher would be expected to imbue the student with the desire to respond to people in need; to further the legitimate aims of others in society; to develop feelings of sympathy for others; to understand the advantages of this sort of society; and to endeavour to improve the quality of life for all.

It goes without saying that this is an ideal. It is the kind of ideal that Bryce discusses when he writes of an "Ideal Democracy" which:

...may be taken to mean a community in which the sense of public duty and an altruistic spirit fill the minds and direct the wills of the large majority of the citizens, so that the Average Citizen stays on the level of him whom we sometimes meet and describe as the Model Citizen.<sup>20</sup>

In the context of education, Scriven's arguments for strong morality make sound sense. If indeed Scriven's moral community is a better place to live than a non-moral community, then it seems obvious



that the educational system should aim for this goal. This is analagous to saying that because a rational society is likely to be a better place in which to live than an irrational society, then it behoves the school system to teach people to reason. And rationality is an accepted aim of the school system even though it is unlikely that the behaviour of every man will be always governed by reason. Similarly, although some men may never be moral, and although some men may benefit from being immoral (just as some men may benefit by an irrational act), these reasons need not be held to provide an argument against teaching students to be moral in the strong sense. What it does do is to encourage the advocates of strong morality to seek ways of ensuring that the immoral or non-moral people do not flourish, and of seeking ways to try and convince them to be moral.

"Respect for Others" and Social Studies 30

A reference to the statements on human respect which were taken from Bulletin I and which are cited above<sup>21</sup> would make it clear that the writers of this Bulletin support what Scriven calls a strong morality. The difficulties of evaluating the moral development







of students in examinations similar to those developed for the Social Studies 30 are enormous. This matter will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

It was evident, however, that the Social Studies 30 examination papers revealed an effort to introduce this dimension into the evaluation of the student. For example, during the mid-sixties, there were a number of questions which referred to the difficulties faced by developing African countries. These questions included an essay question on "Problems faced by Nigeria as an emerging African Nation" in 1961. Such an essay would enable the student to reveal his knowledge of and his attitude to the problems of people in developing countries.

The problem of human relationships within Canada was clearly emphasized throughout the 1960's. In fact, the one specific question which was likely to occur somewhere on the Departmental examinations was the problem of Quebec separatism. These questions on separatism, especially the essay question, presented opportunities for students to discuss their feelings and attitudes towards Quebec.

The question of evaluating the attitudes of students is, however, extremely complex. There was



no place for such an evaluation on the form which was used to assess the Social Studies 30 essay. This difficulty was, however, recognized. Bulletin I makes the statement that on such value questions "...too much has been left to chance,"<sup>22</sup> but neither the Curriculum Guide nor the Bulletin discuss what can be done to eliminate the chance element. In sum, the evidence strongly suggests that there is not a consistent and organized effort to teach the student how to respect his fellow man.

#### "Respect for Others" and the New Social Studies

The concept of respect for others that is advocated by New Social Studies' writers hardly differs from that advocated by Bulletin I and the Curriculum Guide, i.e., strong morality. The fundamental difference between the programs, as was the case with reasoning, is that proponents of the New Social Studies emphasize the processes whereby respect for others can be developed. However, even the New Social Studies' writers do not produce significantly different processes of evaluation as far as assessing the student's respect for his fellow man is concerned. Discussion of the problem of evaluation will be postponed until the next chapter.



Given the concentration on inquiry that is apparent in the New Social Studies, it is clear that greater attention can be paid to developing a concern for others. Oliver and Shaver's work on the dimensional construct and their development of the use of analogy are useful contributions to the formulation of a teaching method that can be used to generate a concern for others.

The kind of problem selected for study will obviously have much to do with the development of the concept of human respect. If the three criteria of problem selection are kept in mind, the first criterion can be interpreted broadly so as to enable the teacher to select problems that appear to challenge the student's capacity for moral judgement.<sup>24</sup> Thus, there is a place for the development of a moral attitude in the approach of the New Social Studies. However, apart from the techniques offered by Oliver and Shaver there seems to be a dearth of other approaches to moral education. What particularly seems to be needed is the emphasis on approaches to moral education which can be systematically developed throughout the school life of the individual.



The Theoretical Basis of an  
Approach to Human Dignity

The need to develop an effective approach to moral education is recognized by the proponents of the Social Studies 30. It is apparent that both programs at least need to be supplemented by a variety of approaches which may be used to gain further insights into the amelioration of moral dilemmas. Because of the nature of its emphasis the socio-psychological tradition of G. H. Mead will be considered since much of his work has a strong bias towards the theory of education.<sup>25</sup> Mead's work has been fruitful in providing researchers with a particular type of conceptual orientation that has been used to develop numerous hypotheses with regard to the maturation of the child in society.

Mead's position seems relevant because it involves both the cognitive and empathetic development of the child. Further justification for using Mead's work as basic may be found by considering the results of empirical studies that have been based on hypotheses that were developed from







Mead's general conceptual position. First, however, it will be necessary to consider Mead's position.

### The Development of the Social Self

G. H. Mead developed a genetic theory of knowledge which commences from the assumptions that the human child, a creature endowed with certain characteristic potentiality, is thrown into a social situation.<sup>26</sup> The development of the child depends upon both the child's potential and his experience in society. Mead does not distinguish between the human child and the young of higher vertebrates at the earlier stages of development. He argues that at first patterns of behaviour in the human child and in the young of animals are similar. The physiological pain of hunger causes the young of a particular species to cry, screech, or squawk and this stimulates the mother to provide food. The provision of food is preceded by signs, physical movement, or noise and then the satisfaction of the physiological need. The whole process is entirely circular: the hunger causes the child to cry, which stimulates the mother to feed the child which satisfies the hunger. This process Mead calls the "conversation of gestures." Through this quite



'accidental' procedure the child learns to express his needs, and then, by studying his mother's responses, he is able to anticipate the result. Mead believes all gregarious animals participate in this kind of circular behaviour and they are limited by such behaviour that:

Dogs approach each other in hostile attitude carry on such a language of gestures. They walk around each other, growling and snapping, and waiting for the opportunity to attack....<sup>27</sup>

There the stimulus which one dog gets from the other is to a response which is different from the response of the stimulating form. One dog is attacking the other, and it is ready to spring at the other dog's throat; the reply on the part of the second dog is to change its position, perhaps to spring at the throat of the first dog. There is a conversation of gestures, a reciprocal shifting of the dog's positions.<sup>28</sup>

Mead emphasizes that in these examples the response is to the gesture itself and not to any meaning that is behind the gesture. It is a response to a sign. Even at this level of awareness, however, it is possible for animals and humans to engage in certain forms of social behaviour. Mead maintains:

...that throughout a vast range of the animal kingdom there are certain



performances such as copulation and care of the young which are social in the sense that two or more interadjusting organisms are involved and that in such performances we need not assume self-consciousness at all.<sup>29</sup>

However, the dog-fight, copulation, care of the young, and similar activities, while the limits of animal behaviour, are the sorts of behaviour that could lead to self-conscious social behaviour. But to make this leap depends upon the ability to symbolize.

Man possesses the ability to react not to the sign but to the meaning which is behind the sign, i.e., he reacts to a symbol. Langer argues that the symbolization process in man is absolutely fundamental and it is this process which sets him off from other animals:

The basic need which certainly is obvious only in man is a need of symbolization. The symbol-making function is one of man's primary activities, like eating, looking or moving about. It is the fundamental process of his mind and goes on all the time.<sup>30</sup>

As far as Mead is concerned the significant aspect to this symbolization process manifests itself in language and emerges from such situations as the 'dog fight':



Here is a process out of which language might arise, that is, a certain attitude of one individual that calls out a response in the others, which in turn calls out a different approach and a different response, and so on indefinitely. In fact, as we shall see, language does arise in just such a process as that.<sup>31</sup>

Once symbolization has emerged, the conversation of gestures becomes superseded by what Mead calls the 'conversation of significant symbols'.<sup>32</sup> This conversation of significant symbols arises when an individual (a) interprets the gestures of another (b) and when the response that (a) makes is made to the meaning of the gesture not to the gesture itself. All the responses are not to the gestures as such, but to the intent or the meaning behind the gestures.

The conversation of significant symbols depends upon three conditions: a. One must be aware of what the other has in mind; b. One must assess both the mood and meaning of the other; c. One must re-orient one's own behaviour according to the assessment. The child





gradually organizes his behaviour through the adults who define society's collective experience for the child.

Mead postulates a psychological mechanism which he uses to explain how a child is enabled to interpret the actions of the 'others'. The individual is conceptualized as comprising an "I" and a "Me". The "me" is the "... organized set of attitudes which one assumes".<sup>33</sup> The "I", on the other hand, "...is the response of the organism to the attitudes of the others." As the child develops, "The attitudes of the others constitute the organized "me" and then one reacts towards that as an "I".<sup>34</sup>

There is a continual re-organization being made by the human organism with regard to the relationship which exists between the "I" and the "me". As the individual gets more and more socialized, the "me" predominates and the actions of the "I" are almost all controlled by the considerations of the "me".

An equilibrium clearly becomes established between the 'I' and the 'me', but, in Mead's view it would be



wrong to interpret the equilibrium as static. There is a continual assessment and re-assessment of the 'I - me' interaction. The individual's outlook on the world is determined as a result of this interaction. And the expression 'outlook' refers to both the social world and the physical world.<sup>35</sup>

Sight should not be lost of the fact that a basic premise of this theory is that the child sees himself as one amongst others. That is, he recognizes the other people around him as being persons as he is a person. It is this awareness that makes the behaviour of the child human behaviour, and it is dependent upon the interactive process of the "I - me". This interaction depends on the ability to symbolize and also on the ability to take the role of the other. It is this latter ability which is of specific significance. The "me" is the generalization of what the individual believes other people think and its function in Mead's theory is to control the behaviour of the individual. In this sense the individual quite naturally respects the other.



The "me" of Mead's mechanism is fabricated from the attitudes of people of significance in the child's life. When the "I" desires to initiate an action, the action prior to performance is tested out on the "me" which reflects the individual's view of what significant others in his society will think of the proposed action. Right from the beginning of thought there is an interesting coupling of rationality and respect for others. Thus a child, although being able to solve his problem (e.g. hunger) by stealing cookies, may decide that the response of his parent will be more severe than his pangs of hunger. He can only decide this if he takes the role of his mother and endeavours to see himself through his mother's eyes.

But role playing does not just occur when the child is faced with difficulties. Mead argues that the child learns the roles of others through his play activities. At first it is role playing when the child plays the game of being father, postman, brother, policeman, mother, etc., but role playing becomes game-playing when the child is forced to play many roles at once. Thus, a child who



plays soccer must know what to expect from his opponents, where to expect his team mates, when to expect the ball to be passed to him, and so on. The child is playing many roles and this is natural to the development of the child:

It is a development that arises gradually in the life of the infant...and finds its expression in normal play life of young children, in the process the child gradually becomes a social being in his own experience, and he acts towards himself in a manner analogous to that in which he acts towards others.<sup>36</sup>

The ability to symbolically take the role of the other and to adjust behaviour according to the interpretation of the view of the other seems to be a perfectly normal mode of behaviour in the young person.

Surprising support for Mead's position is found in the work of Merleau-Ponty who wrote about thirty years after Mead. Because Merleau-Ponty's theories draw from a different source than Mead's, it was felt worthwhile to outline Merleau-Ponty's position on the origins of social development in the child. An account of this development is found in Appendix D.







### Extensions of Mead's Theories

It has been pointed out that the "me" develops from the individuals, parents, new relatives, close friends, and, as the child gets older, teachers, other authority figures, and so on. The attitudes of these "significant others" to the individual become generalized in the "generalized other". The importance of significant others in the life of the student will be developed below. It need only be pointed out that if the significant other embraces a strong moral position, then the influence he has on the child will likely be generalized in the same way. Hence, the importance of significant others.

The concentration on the pronouns "I", "me", "other", prompts consideration of the pronoun "we". Kunkel, a German psychologist, has argued that the "we feeling" is a significant emotional experience in the human existence. He points out how the mother speaks to her infant child with such expressions as, "Now we'll take a bath", or "Didn't we enjoy that", and so on. He indicates how easily people form groups which become "we" associations and how naturally we feel pity for others when we observe an accident.<sup>37</sup>



Regardless of his tendency to mysticism, Kunkel seems to be driving at a significant ethical force which is that people do tend to identify with others. What Kunkel endeavours to do is to seek ways of extending this "we" feeling until it includes all mankind in a form of universal brotherhood. His work on "imagery" is reminiscent of Mead in that he emphasizes that concepts of, for example, "mother" are derived from actual experiences, but which are modified by ideal concepts.<sup>38</sup> These latter are apparently derived from various significant others. It would seem that in the task of education an effort could be made to study literary or historical heroes who have the force to become significant others, and who serve persuasively to extend the "we feeling". But more of this below.

Another feature of significance in Kunkel's work is the coincidence of the "we" feeling and the concept of a moral community. People who did think of all members of the human community in terms of "we" would be much more inclined to be concerned about the well being of their fellow men. It is the development and extension of this concern through the process of education which will be discussed below.



### Empathy and Human Respect

The works of Mead and others suggest that some form of respect is apparent in the child's attitude to the significant and generalized others. The form of respect, however, may be negative. That is, the child may respect others (i.e., to take account of their feelings, desires, possible actions, etc.) in order to attain some purely selfish end, or in order to avoid being punished. The important point, however, is that even this mode of respect can produce a change in behaviour.

Respect, as it has been used in the last paragraph, suggests (a) that a person is able to interpret the mood of another and (b) that he is able to respond to that mood. The mood may be one of threat or promise, but the child is able to respond.

MacLagan's discussion of sympathy is closely related to the concept of respect that has been mentioned above. He argues that it is possible to identify three forms of sympathy.<sup>39</sup> The first is simple animal sympathy as, for example, when an animal panics and starts a stampede.<sup>40</sup> The second kind of sympathy MacLagan calls "passive sympathy" or "empathy" which:



...is a matter of "feeling oneself into the experience of the other" or of an "emotional identification of ourself with the other."<sup>41</sup>

This is clearly another description of the kind of psychological mechanism which it is necessary for the child to possess in order for him to be a participant in the inter-personal procedures discussed by Mead.

Maclagan goes further. He claims there is a third form of sympathy which is the:

...sympathy of practical concern for others as distinguished from simply feeling with them.<sup>42</sup>

It is this level of "active sympathy" as Maclagan calls it which needs to be developed in the schools if the concept of respect for others is to be achieved.

The social science literature is replete with methods that assume the second level of sympathy or empathy. These methods are used in the social sciences in order to gain a greater understanding of the lives of others. They were not developed in order to develop a greater sense of respect for others and it is clear that the understanding of others does not necessarily lead to respect for others. What is proposed here is to consider ways of using the second level of sympathy as a means of arriving at the third





level of sympathy. That is, just as the second level of sympathy is used to get to know more about other people, so it is hypothesized that the second level can be used to become more sympathetic or more concerned about other people.

The hypothesis as stated here does not seem to have been tested. However, various experiments on attitude changes have used techniques which are strongly suggestive. It is proposed now to consider various methodological approaches to the social sciences which involve passive sympathy (empathy) in order to suggest how these may be used to develop active sympathy. First, however, a survey will be made of relevant empirical research that suggests the fruitfulness of this approach.

#### On Developing the Concept of Human Dignity

Numerous hypotheses can be "spun off" from Mead's conceptual position. The most obvious sources of hypotheses seem to be Mead's postulated processes of role playing, game playing, and the I-Me interaction which involves the concepts of the significant other and the generalized other. It may be mentioned here



that the process of Verstehen, which will be developed later, is considered to be a matured form of game playing which occurs when an individual contemplates a particular act and rehearses the act in imagination to consider its impact on other members of society.<sup>43</sup> When Verstehen is only a part of the rehearsal in imagination it operates at a common sense level. It will be suggested later that the process of Verstehen has other functions both at the common sense level and at more disciplined levels of knowledge.

Role playing has been used in sociodrama to achieve some interesting results. For example, in a film called the "Eye of the Storm" a teacher in rural Ohio divided her grade IV class on the basis of eye colour and provided one group with collars. The group with collars were systematically discriminated against for one school day. The mode of discrimination included lack of praise for correct answers; scoldings in the form of "Well what do you expect from your kind of people"; use of poor equipment in learning situations, being banned from playground equipment; being ostracized by all other students, and so on. The following day the roles were reversed.<sup>44</sup>



At the end of the second day the class discussed what had occurred. Both groups had obviously suffered from the experience of discrimination and both groups were elated when the collars--the symbols of discrimination--were removed. The teacher made it very clear that some people suffered that sort of discrimination all the time and the question of the justice of such a fate was discussed. The class clearly understood the problem, but the impact of the experience in terms of attitude change was not measured.

Although there was no measured change of attitude in the role playing approach discussed, more sophisticated game playing (simulation) has been studied and changes of attitude have been measured. For example, DeKock describes a study based on the game Sunshine which categorized Caucasian students as Negroes.<sup>45</sup> The categorization was done randomly, but those who drew Negro identity cards experienced discrimination such as was described above. As this study refers to the high school grades, one effective and irritating mode of discrimination was manifested by quickly removing grade marks from students wearing dark identification cards which identified them as Negroes.



While students were grouped in this way the class studied Negro history and were faced with current discrimination problems which required action. The classes were expected to simulate the action they would take on the problems. At the end of a three week period students were evaluated on their knowledge of Negro history; they were given a second test on racial attitudes (one test was administered prior to the simulation, one after, and both were anonymous); and they were encouraged to evaluate the simulation experience itself. The results of the thirty item, racial attitude test,<sup>46</sup> showed a significant decrease in the discriminatory attitudes of students. The test sample referred to comprised 358 students. Apparently there were no follow up experiments nor were there control groups. Thus, although the sophistication of the research was not great, the indication was that attitude changes did occur during the simulations.

The significant feature about role playing and game playing is that the teacher does aim at a particular objective: the development of the concept of human dignity. Robinson and Spaight indicate that:

There is considerable support among psychologists for the thesis that







prejudiced attitudes are learned early from significant others and that society reinforces them.<sup>47</sup>

In the classroom situation where the teacher endeavours to change the attitude of prejudice to one of toleration, the social force of the teacher and class can be mobilized to achieve that aim.

This social force is backed up by information. Robinson and Spaight indicate that information alone is conducive to positive attitude changes,<sup>48</sup> and studies by Greenberg<sup>49</sup> and Elrod<sup>50</sup> indicate that information supported by persuasive argument can be much more effective. The classroom, it seems, can have an impact on changing attitudes, and can act as a means of remedying distortions due to lack of information and lack of conscious guidance.

Cruikshank and Broadbent report a simulation study in teacher education which seems to hold potential for development in teaching students to respect others.<sup>51</sup> Cruikshank and Broadbent selected thirty-one classroom problems which were presented to students as role plays, video-taped incidents, written accounts, verbal communication, and so on. Each student teacher was expected to assume the role of teacher, face certain



critical teaching problems, have an opportunity to analyze and solve the problems, and finally, his problem solving behaviour would be analyzed through subject interaction.

One of the hypotheses held in this research was that:

If student teachers are given pre-student teaching opportunities to encounter, analyze and attempt to solve critical teaching problems then such problems will be less numerous [in the teaching situation]<sup>52</sup>

The conclusion of the experiment stated that:

Exposure to simulation seems to indicate that student teachers will perceive themselves and will be perceived by their supervising teachers as having fewer problems [than those not exposed to simulation].<sup>53</sup>

This experiment suggests some interesting possibilities in the area of teaching students the concept of human dignity.

Using the experiment just described as a model it would be possible to construct a series of problems involving transgression of human rights, to present these problems to students and then to follow through in the way described above. Once more the role of teacher must be seen positively as one who provides leadership, information, and guidance in the solving



of problems. The development of a supportive classroom atmosphere, the availability of adequate information, and the experience gained in (a) identifying and then (b) trying to solve problems associated with the ignoring of human dignity, seems to hold promise as a way of diminishing human prejudice.

The function of the significant other in the social development of the child has been studied by Elkin.<sup>54</sup> He reports evidence of the strong influence that adults who are close to children have upon those children.<sup>55</sup> Elkin follows Mead in claiming that out of the roles of several significant others, arises the idea of the generalized others. Evidence taken from the impact of the mass media on child development reveals that significant others change and modification of the generalized other results as a consequence. Thus, anti-Negro films have been shown to produce an increase in anti-Negro feelings amongst an audience of white children. On the other hand, Elrod's study indicated that films can be used to diminish attitudes of prejudice and when persuasive techniques are used the diminishment of prejudice is more apparent.<sup>57</sup>

This review of the research suggests that much more research is needed. Especially needed are follow



up studies. However, the review does provide some clues which will be developed in the light of Mead's conceptual position. In the following section further possibilities for the use of role playing, and simulation techniques, will be considered. Also to be considered in the succeeding sections are those more sophisticated procedures such as Verstehen, participant-observation, and action research. All of which are extensions of role playing and simulation.

### Role Playing

Mead characterizes one stage of growth through which a child develops as role playing. Shafstel and Shafstel, building on Mead's theory, suggest that role playing can be used in the classroom for the following purposes:

1. Role playing presents us with a medium which provides individuals with the opportunity to try many roles, with the support of their classmates.
2. The teacher, by guiding the role playing, provides the child with the opportunity to play roles that can break down initial, negative reputations often assigned to individuals by the group.
3. The individual, by playing many roles, can acquire skills that may encourage him to seek new roles in his real life situations.







The Shaftels provide students with problems that are understandable and within their experience. The problems are posed in the form of an unfinished story: a conflict in the school due to a racial epithet; a case of cheating; conflicts due to social differences, and so on.<sup>59</sup> Each of the stories poses a dilemma which the students are challenged to resolve.

In their book, the Shaftels provide a useful methodological guide which serves as an introduction for the use of the teacher to role playing techniques. The authors point out critical features of their stories and suggest various uses for them. The methodology generally pursued culminates in the teacher saying to an individual or a group, "What would you do now?" The individual or the group takes over and other members of the class criticize or commend the suggestions made by those trying to resolve the issues.

In the context of respecting others the function of the teacher is to keep reminding the class that the solution to the problem should be such that it respects the rights of others. This is the value commitment expected of the citizen in a democratic society, and the teacher's endeavour is to inculcate this attitude in his students.



It would be necessary for the teacher to persistently draw the attention of his class to this issue, so that eventually the class itself will start criticizing proposed solutions on the grounds that they fail to take account of the rights of others.

There are limits to the process of role playing. For one thing it is generally associated with "acting out" and criticism "on the spot". Both these features have advantages in that they provide conditions that are analogous to what occurs in real life, and if these role playing activities are pursued sufficiently often they may become habitual. But the role playing as described by Shaftel and Shaftel does not involve a formalized intellectual dimension. At the level of the elementary or junior high school this is not so important, but as the student matures he needs to develop a more rigorous approach. It seems that this development can be made if the student becomes familiar with the process of Verstehen.

### The Process of Verstehen

When people play games Mead claims that they are also playing roles in a complex fashion and in so doing they are developing socially. The Shaftels have



suggested a way of extending the educational use of this playing of roles by involving students in a situation where they are conscious of their role playing. Furthermore, in addition to the aims of role playing suggested by the Shaftels, it was suggested above that one aim should be that of persuading students of the value of human dignity and that dilemmas should be resolved in accord with this principle.

If a person takes the role of another, to modify a quotation of Maclagan, "he feels himself into the experience of another."<sup>60</sup> Maclagan is one of those who feels that this process is necessary for human communication. Natanson also believes this to be the case:

To say...that Verstehen is "the experiential form of common sense knowledge of human affairs" means that as a matter of fact men in daily life do interpret one another's actions by seeking to grasp the meaning intended by fellow men. Consider some of the language involved in this level: "What did he really mean by that?" "Why don't you say what you mean?" "Who does he think he's fooling?"<sup>61</sup>

Schutz, while accepting the fundamental part that Verstehen, or sympathetic understanding of the other, plays in common sense behaviour, he recognizes this



aspect of Verstehen as one important level of thought:

The fact that in common-sense thinking we take for granted our actual or potential knowledge of the meaning of human actions and their products, is, I suggest, precisely what social scientists want to express if they speak of understanding or Verstehen as a technique of dealing with human affairs. Verstehen is, thus, primarily not a method used by social scientists, but the particular experiential form in which common-sense thinking takes cognizance of the social cultural world.<sup>62</sup>

Schutz calls this the first level of Verstehen,<sup>63</sup> which implies an automatic, mental, role playing.

A description of this version of Verstehen is provided by Collingwood.<sup>64</sup> He analyzes the thought processes of a police officer who investigated the crime of murder which occurred in a house near a vicarage.<sup>65</sup> The prime suspects were the vicar and the fiancée of the vicar's daughter. The crime is a fiction, but the thought processes involved are characteristic of those which would be involved in a real case of crime detection.

In the inquiries into the crime, a police officer discovered that the daughter of the vicar is telling a lie, so he asked himself the question "Why?" and





he answered himself:

Because she is shielding someone.  
Whom is she shielding? Either her  
father or her young man. Is it her  
father? No; fancy the rector! There-  
fore, it is the young man. Are her  
suspicions of him well founded? They  
might be; he was there at the time;  
he is strong enough; and he knows  
enough anatomy.<sup>66</sup>

This research on the part of the police officer involved considering how he (the police office) would feel and act if he were in the position of the girl. Clearly, she would lie to protect either her father or her fiance.

In order to make these claims, the police officer had to be aware of the circumstances of the case. He had learned much about the vicar, about the fiance and about their various personal relationships; he had discovered evidence inside the vicarage, in the garden, and in the house where the murder took place. He had, in fact, familiarized himself with the environment. Having done all these things he then hypothesized who the murderer was and endeavoured to reconstruct the scene from this perspective. This hypothetical reconstruction led to more evidence which disconfirmed his hypothesis, whereupon another start was made from the perspective of another suspect.



There appears to be no mystical or non-empirical process involved in this use of Verstehen. A tough minded empiricist like Nagel can write:

In discussing the adequacy of Verstehen it is essential to distinguish between the method conceived as a way of generating suggestive hypotheses for explaining social action, and that method conceived as a way of validating proposed explanations. Now there is respectable evidence to show that the method understood in the first sense frequently functions usefully in certain areas of inquiry, for many distinguished social scientists have proclaimed it to be a source of fertile ideas.<sup>67</sup>

It is this position that is held here. The investigator agrees with Nagel:

...that the method of Verstehen does not, by itself, supply any criteria for the validity of conjectures and hypotheses concerning the springs of human action.<sup>68</sup>

It is clear that the police officer discussed above merely used the process of Verstehen as a means to generating hypotheses. He then tested these hypotheses by considering the empirical evidence available. However, when one of his hypotheses failed, he constructed another, but in so doing he provided himself with a new perspective. That is, if the police officer



moved his attention from the fiance to the vicar then he would start looking for different evidence, namely the vicar's fingerprints, or the vicar's muddy boots in the hall, etc.

Collingwood's account of crime detection seems plausible. What is suggested here is that this method may be used not to detect crime but to provide students with insights into the thoughts and feelings of others. This is done with the intention of developing a sense of respect for persons. This respect cannot be developed unless students have an awareness of what the other thinks and feels. The process of Verstehen seems to be a vehicle which provides such an awareness.

Unlike role playing, Verstehen will necessarily be the subject of written work and study. Like role playing the task of the teacher is to keep before the minds of the students that the process of Verstehen provides insights into the thoughts and feelings of others which then permits the possibility of human respect. As conceived here, one of the tasks of the teacher is to emphasize the need for respect and the advantages involved in respect for persons as manifested in the particular cases studied.



Rogers suggests that one way of gaining respect for persons is by studying Sorokin's "positive types" in classroom situations. A positive type of individual is an "...unusually sensitive individual who possesses an active concern for the well-being of others."<sup>69</sup>

Unfortunately, as Rogers points out, far too little research has been done about such people. On the other hand, there is much data available on "negative type" such as criminals, delinquents, lunatics, and so on. However, teachers could seek out candidates for the position of "positive types"; the approach that various positive types would use on certain issues could be considered by suggesting that students may, for example, imagine themselves to be Martin Luther King in a particular situation, and then decide how he (King) would feel, think or act in that particular situation.

The more exercises of this nature that could be introduced into classroom situations, the greater would be the possibility of introducing students to an understanding of the altruistic perspective. A variety of approaches could be adopted to familiarize students with this view. Scudder suggests the use of diary or chronicle writing using the Verstehen approach





to endeavour to familiarize students with the kinds of decisions that altruistic persons would make.<sup>70</sup>

### Participant-Observation

Bruyn pointed out that the social sciences have always been torn between fundamentally differing approaches to subject matter.<sup>71</sup> The basic distinction rests on the classical dichotomy of empiricism and idealism. It would seem that an extreme form of empiricism, namely positivism, has been most influential in recent decades. The attempt has been to accurately predict and measure man's behaviour.<sup>72</sup> The empirically oriented social scientist has sought reliable facts which could be used for such measurement and prediction.

While not dispensing with the concept of factual data there is a growing search for other sorts of data in order to obtain a "sensitively accurate interpretation and explanation of man's social and cultural life."<sup>73</sup> It is one thing to observe an event and to state what occurs, but it is quite another to participate in an event and to state what it means to a participant. Participant-observation is a research technique which endeavours to get beyond the statement of what occurs in an effort to find out why it occurs



and what it means to those who are involved in the occurrence.<sup>74</sup>  
This is done by actually participating in the work of the  
others, experiencing what they do, and then attempting to  
"...describe and explain the perspectives of the people  
encountered in the study."

Bruyn outlines an approach to participant-observation  
which is given below in slightly adapted form:

## II Method

### A. Discovery

To experience events that are  
important to the participants  
and to realize how they interpret  
them. To imaginatively take the  
role of participants in the  
process of experiencing events  
through social action.

### B. Description

To record the way events are  
interpreted by participants.  
To record the interpretations  
(meanings) of participants in  
eventful social action.

### C. Explanation

To reveal how these events and  
meanings exhibit a cultural  
character as in themes and values.  
To reveal how this cultural character  
exhibits a configuration in action.



To reveal how this configuration exhibits analytical character (having reference to other cases) in categories and theories of man in society.

### III Procedures

#### A. Journal Record

1. Describe the way (process) in which events are interpreted by participants.
2. Describe the interpretations (meanings) themselves. Include intersubjective interpretations (collective meanings.)
3. Describe how the interpretations of participants and the observer compare within the context of time, place, circumstances language, intimacy, and consensus.<sup>75</sup>

An adaptation of the outline sketched above could be used by the teacher to capitalize on student experience in various student offices and in their participation in extra-curricula activities. Thus, it may be possible to gain some insight into forces that control chairmen of committees and presidents of boards if the chairmen of the school council, for example, reveals how he made his decisions and what pressures were brought on him. The student participates



in one capacity and then discusses his experiences in his capacity as student.<sup>76</sup>

The possibilities of an extension of the awareness of human respect may be introduced through the experiences of a student who does part-time work. A student who has been employed in a garage, on any kind of public service employment on evenings or during summer vacations, can be encouraged to analyze his experiences in terms of the outline suggested above. His own treatment at the hands of others and his interactions with his employers, fellow employees, and customers may be fruitful in revealing the concept of human respect that is at play in the various relationships. The possibility of building on this awareness depends on the nature of the insights obtained, but when the opportunities arise the teacher should use them as means to developing the concept of human respect.

### Action Research

Participant-observation is not significantly different from action research. The differences rest in the fact that whereas the researcher in participant-observation studies becomes part of the group in order to pursue his





research, the action-researcher is involved in the ongoing activities of the group and his interests lie as much in performing these group activities well as in gaining a better understanding of them. Thus, for example, a youthful looking parent may enrol in high school as a student in order to better understand the student culture--this is participant observation. The teacher, while carrying on his task as teacher, may also involve himself in research in his classroom. Perhaps he will seek to discover the social structure of his class so that he will be able to organize it more effectively. In order to perform this task the action researcher will observe and record the actions of his students, seek their motives and endeavour to explain their various performances in terms of the student's own perspective. The teacher does not become a student to do this kind of research, but he has to sympathetically understand what it is to be a student in order to grasp their interpretations.

Lippett has shown how quite young children can perform this activity as students.<sup>77</sup> That is, students were asked to consider the problems faced by a particular teacher. Lipsett claims that the students made fully justifiable



and accurate claims about the pressures that were on the teacher and about his probable responses. The educational possibilities of action-research are clear. The student may be assisted to use it in relation to understanding various aspects of the school itself; to more fully grasp some part-time work in which he may be involved; to consider aspects of his church or fraternity and so on. The process of action research seems adaptable to the educational experience of youth; it emphasizes the important aspect of Verstehen, which in turn depends upon attributing the quality of humanity to others.

### Simulation Technique

Although simulation techniques have come into their own in the last two or three years, they have a long tradition in the history of education. Da Feltre, for example, encouraged his young noblemen to plan and participate in mock military engagements, and the games of Eton and Harrow were perceived as preparation for the battlefield. But in recent years the concept of simulation and game playing has become much more sophisticated and the materials for the development of understanding have proliferated.<sup>78</sup>



There are professionally prepared games which simulate political, economic and diplomatic activity. One of the features of these games is the need to develop the ability to anticipate the moves of other participants in the game. This anticipation involves an awareness of the facts; a consideration of the problems involved; and an understanding of the problem from the perspective of other players. As with all the processes that have been discussed so far, there is no necessary connection between understanding another and respecting another. The movement from understanding to respect must be seen as a goal to be aimed for, and the teacher who wishes to achieve this goal must be continually watching for opportunities to develop this concept.

One way of developing the concept of respect would be to devise games which are structured to be won by students who discover rational means of improving human respect in various situations. Thus, for example, a game could describe a lock-out by management because of a threatened strike by unions over a case of racial discrimination. The simulation could be structured in such a way that the winner of the game is he who best capitalizes on the situation to increase the extent of human respect.



Methods of Inquiry and Respect for Persons.

In this review of methods of inquiry which are advocated for use by various schools of social scientists, an effort was made to show how they could be considered as means of developing a moral sense in students. The methods in themselves are means of inquiry. It is hypothesized here that they can be used to develop a moral sense in students. The idea of the maximization of the principle of universal human respect is perceived as an ideal which, by the efforts of the teacher, can be striven for via the use of the processes discussed in this section.

What seems to be necessary now is to develop some long term projects which will put to the test some of the hypotheses which have been proposed here. The emphasis on large scale and long term projects is important because there seems to be a dearth of such research. This matter, however will be reconsidered in the last chapter.<sup>79</sup>

The Inter-Relationships of "Facts",  
"Reasoning" and "Respect for Persons".

Results of the initial part of this study suggested that traditional social studies programs tend to







emphasize the recall of factual statements. It was argued that whereas knowing the facts is vital to understanding a situation, it is also vital to know how the facts were obtained, and to be aware of their relevance to a particular situation. This knowledge would enable students to become acquainted with the reliability of the data which they use.

Knowing facts, however, is insufficient to the solving of social problems because of the necessity to take account of human values. It has been argued that when an individual is confused, the first requirement is that of identifying the problem. The problem, as defined, will then influence the facts sought and the values considered to be involved in the problem. As value conflicts are likely to occur, it was argued that the principle of respect for one's fellow men should be used as a guide in seeking solutions to such value conflicts.

In order to enable students to respect their fellow men, it seems to be necessary to develop approaches to achieve this end. For this reason Mead's conceptual position was used as a justification for the modifying processes such as role playing,



Verstehen, participant observation, and action research, for classroom use.<sup>80</sup> It was hypothesized that as these processes assumed the human ability to empathize (or to be passively sympathetic) that the processes could be used, if guided by the teacher, to achieve what Maclagan calls 'active sympathy'.<sup>81</sup>

A rational person who was actively sympathetic, and who participated in solving problems of men, would be one who characterizes the ideal of a serious citizen in a democratic society. Such a person would define the problem, consider the facts, consider the values, and then select the best solution. The best solution would be the one which would ameliorate the situation and which maximized human dignity, and diminished encroachments on the rights of others. There would clearly be some extremely difficult problems to solve, but the function of human reason, for the serious citizen, would be to seek a solution that satisfied the concept of human dignity. Such an approach to solving the problems of society is considered by Scriven<sup>83</sup> and Baier<sup>83</sup> and it is suggestive of Mannheim's Utopian perspective.<sup>84</sup>

The problem to be considered now is one which is essential for the educational task but which seems to be extremely complex and difficult. The problem



is: how is it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of a student in the process of inquiry and in his ability to respect his fellow men? These issues will be considered in the next chapter.



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4. Bulletin I, p. 13.

5. Ibid., p. 14.

6. Ibid., pp. 14-15.

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12. Berry, for example, cites the following as a justification for the concept of universal human dignity:

a. Do naught unto others which would cause you pain if done to you. (Brahmanism)

b. Hurt not others in ways that you yourself would find hurtful. (Buddhism)

c. All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them (Christianity)

d. Do not unto others what you would not have them do unto you. (Confucianism)

e. No one of you is a believer until he desires for his brother that which he desires for himself.

f. What is hateful to you, do not to your fellow men. (Judaism)





g. Regard your neighbour's gain as your own gain, and your neighbour's loss as your own loss. (Taoism)

h. That nature alone is good that refrains from doing unto another whatsoever is not good for itself. (Zoroastrianism)

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61. This quotation is taken from Natanson's, "A Study in Philosophy and the Social Sciences" in Natanson, (ed.), Philosophy of the Social Sciences, p. 279. It should be noted that Natanson indicates that this is a reprint of an essay by the same title published in Natanson (ed.), Literature, Philosophy and the Social Sciences. However, there are some differences in the two papers and the quotation cited does not appear in the original work.

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81. Supra.

82. Scriven, Op. Cit., Chapter VII.

83. Kurt Baier, The Moral Point of View (New York: Random House, 1966).

84. Karl Mannheim, Ideology and Utopia (New York: Harvest Books, 1966).



## CHAPTER VI

### EVALUATION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Because of the importance of evaluation to the social studies, the work undertaken in this chapter endeavours to specify the complex nature of the relationship that exists between evaluation and the process of education. As well as discussing the various forms of evaluation, the variety of insights that may be obtained via a sophisticated program of evaluation is discussed.

The first section of this chapter will briefly consider some pertinent aspects of the theory of evaluation as it applies to the social studies. The next two sections of this chapter review procedures that were used in the Social Studies 30 program as well as those which have been used, or which are recommended for use, in the New Social Studies program. Following this review various experimental approaches will be considered regarding the students' ability to use facts; of his ability to use reason; and of his ability to respect his fellow men.



Finally an attempt will be made in this chapter to make use of the subjective knowledge that a teacher has of his students. However, the teachers' awareness of the students' background must always be seen in relation to the results of all the other testing procedures. By using both subjective and objective dimensions, it may be possible to obtain a more complete view of an individual.

#### Goals and Roles in Evaluation

Evaluation in the social studies seems to have lagged behind the introduction of new approaches to the teaching of the social studies. It has been claimed, and evidence has been presented which supports the claim, that programs of evaluation tend to concentrate on the factual dimension, with some reference to the reasoning dimension, but with very little reference to the value dimension.<sup>1</sup> There is no difficulty in understanding why this should be since it is clearly not a difficult task to discover whether or not a student knows a certain body of content; it is not easy to discover how well a student is able to reason; and making an assessment of the students' moral behaviour is extra-ordinarily difficult.



Evidence of tardiness in the adoption of new approaches to evaluation is cited by Dressel<sup>2</sup> who claimed that a book by Kelley and Drey, published in 1934 "...presents ideas and techniques which are still beyond current practice...."<sup>3</sup> Dressel's article was written in 1954, and it is significant that it was reprinted in 1964 by Massialas and Kazamias because:

A search for articles dealing with evaluation in the social studies did not bear fruitful results since very little is really available in this important area. Most of the tests and manuals that accompany social studies textbooks include questions which, generally, call for recall of arbitrary associations. The same practice prevails among the majority of the standardized tests which are commercially available.<sup>4</sup>

Hence, Kazamias and Massialas were forced to look back ten years for an appropriate work on evaluation.

Since the mid-sixties, however, work has developed in social studies evaluation. Even so, in 1966 Scriven wrote:

Whatever one's views about evaluation, it is easy enough to demonstrate that there are very few professionally competent evaluators in the country today.<sup>5</sup>

He goes on to claim that this lack will have its effect





on the U. S. Office of Education's plans for Research and Development--which indicates the seriousness of this problem.

Scriven's own work for the Social Science Education Consortium is a significant contribution to the theory of evaluation. Particularly useful is his distinction between the goal of evaluation and the role of evaluation. Scriven maintains that the goal of evaluation:

...simply consists in the gathering and combining of performance data with a weighted set of goal scales to yield either comparative or numerical ratings....<sup>6</sup>

Thus, to test a student's knowledge of the facts of a particular case is to find out how many of the facts he knows in relation to the number of facts about which he is asked. But checking on knowledge of the facts is, admittedly, not a very difficult task.

However, in the analysis of the Social Studies 30 examination (which will be discussed further in the next section) it was shown that certain processes of reasoning could be evaluated. Difficulties became apparent, when a movement was made from processes like defining, maintaining consistency of data,



selecting relevant material from written documents and so on, to considering evaluation of the process of inquiry. However, recent works by Oliver and Shaver<sup>7</sup> have suggested how this difficulty can be overcome. This work will also be discussed below.

The goal of evaluation when it comes to measuring the moral behaviour of students is more complex, but Scriven insists, only more complex.<sup>8</sup> Scriven holds that it is possible to evaluate the moral behaviour of an individual provided there are criteria against which it can be measured. In a democratic society there are some criteria which are established. For example, there is the criterion of respect for one's fellow man. Scriven's strongly moral man is one ideal;<sup>9</sup> another ideal is Bryce's Ideal Citizen;<sup>10</sup> another ideal that has been developed here is the ideal of the rational individual who respects the rights of others--the serious citizen of a democratic society. If this concept is kept in mind, it is at least theoretically possible to make some evaluations about the moral behaviour of students.

Unlike the goal of evaluation which is to compare one thing with another, the role of evaluation is the



reason for the comparison being made. Scriven points out that evaluation can and does play numerous roles.<sup>11</sup> Evaluation can be used: to select students for university; to judge the effectiveness of a course; to suggest areas that require course improvement; to assist the teacher in his own professional development, and so on. The distinction between 'roles' and 'goals' will be kept in mind during the following considerations of evaluation in the Social Studies 30 and the New Social Studies programs.

#### Evaluation in the Social Studies 30

The goal of evaluation in the Social Studies 30 program was to compare a particular student's knowledge with what was defined as the total knowledge used on the test. That is, if there were five hundred questions on a test and a student could answer two hundred and fifty of them, then it could be said that he knew fifty per cent of the questions asked. Clearly things were not this simple, but this was the principle of comparison involved in the goal of the Social Studies 30.

The roles of evaluation were numerous. First students were compared and ranked according to their



achievements and their ranking influenced their future education; students were compared with students of previous years; teachers were (unofficially) evaluated on the performance of their students in the external examination; teachers could use the results of the examination to aid in self development, and so on. The absence of two roles may be noted: the evaluation could not be used to assist the students to repair weak areas of their work; and the teacher did not know where his specific weaknesses lay in instruction. These negative features were due to the external nature of the examination which prevented the teachers and students from obtaining their assessed work.

The evaluation procedures of the Social Studies 30 were analyzed in Chapter II. It was shown that the main emphasis in the processes of evaluation was on the recall of a specified body of 'facts' which were defined as significant by curriculum authorities. This part of the process of evaluation confirmed the view of proponents of the New Social Studies that there was a persistent tendency to "cover ground" and that other stated goals of the Social Studies received little attention.





The Social Studies 30 evaluation procedures did cover the students' knowledge of certain reasoning processes such as being able to recall certain select material, identify definitions, state definitions, interpreting data, making inferences from stated evidence, and so on. However, it was argued earlier that little was done to test the students' ability in stating problems, hypothesizing, testing hypotheses, and so on.<sup>12</sup> The essay provided the possibility for performing such processes, but the conditions of the examination, especially the time limitations, counted heavily against such possibilities.

It was suggested in Chapter IV that the processes of reasoning considered in the Social Studies 30 examinations were those processes which would be considered as preparatory steps to learning the more complex procedures of inquiry. Thus, in the Essentialist tradition, the reasoning processes evaluated in the Social Studies 30 would be considered adequate at the high school stage of education.<sup>13</sup>

There was some evidence that students were asked certain factual questions which referred to the rights and dignity of their fellow men. Also, essay questions



on the developing African nations and on the Quebec separatism issue could have been used to gain some insight into the students' attitude towards their fellow men.<sup>14</sup> However, there seemed to be little concentration on this area in the final examinations. However, this problem was certainly not peculiar to the Social Studies 30 program since it was a result of this general tendency to ignore reasoning and value dimensions that produced the New Social Studies.

#### Evaluation and the New Social Studies

The proponents of the New Social Studies endeavour to emphasize the processes of thought rather than simply knowing the facts. Facts have their place in the New Social Studies but facts are treated as evidence. It is obviously necessary to be able to locate evidence, to weigh its validity, and to be able to use it. In recognizing this necessity facts become an integral part of the process of reasoning. As with the other elements of the process of reasoning, the factor that justifies the particular facts to be used is the problem under study. The simple recall of factual statements is not treated separately in the New Social Studies. It is assumed that the



students' familiarity with facts will reveal itself in a consideration of his ability to use reason to treat social issues.

The proponents of the New Social Studies recognize that, like facts, values also become significant as their relevance becomes apparent to the problem under consideration. Oliver and Shaver have demonstrated that values can be considered in evaluating<sup>15</sup> students and the methods which they use will be discussed below. First, however, it is necessary to determine the goal of the New Social Studies program.

The goal of the New Social Studies program involves assessing the students' ability to use reason to solve social problems while respecting the rights of their fellow men. In order to make an assessment of this nature there must be some standard against which any particular student is compared. This standard can be characterized in various ways, but it seems that the ideal of a serious citizen in a democratic state could be conceptualized as the standard against which students can be compared. Indeed, this seems to be the ideal held by Oliver and Shaver.

The roles of evaluation in the Social Studies program are numerous. The evaluation results may be



used to: direct the development of a course of studies; to assist particular students to overcome difficulties; to aid the teacher in self-development; to recommend a student for a position; and so on. Further discussion of the roles of evaluation in the New Social Studies program will ensue as this work continues.

Reasoning and Respect for Persons  
in the New Social Studies

Oliver and Shaver's work will be considered here in some detail because they treat the problem of reasoning and respect for persons in a very promising fashion. They identify a major problem of evaluating the ability to reason as being concerned with the fragmentation of the process of thought. They also recognize that value assessment must be made as the process of inquiry develops. Both of these issues will be discussed in this section.

Even the most refined tests seem forced to break up complex procedures into artificially simple fragments. Consider, for example, the Watson-Glasser Critical Thinking Appraisal.<sup>16</sup> The questions in this test were devised to evaluate such skills as: whether





or not the student could draw valid conclusions; were assumptions recognized; could simple rules of deduction be followed; was a student able to evaluate arguments, and so on. The process to be evaluated was stipulatively defined as, for example, in the case of testing the student's ability to make inferences. An inference is defined as: "...a conclusion a person draws from certain observed or supposed facts." The following question purports to test the student's ability to make inferences:

Two hundred eighth graders voluntarily attended the recent weekend student forum conference in a Midwestern city. At this conference the topics of race relations and means of achieving lasting world peace were discussed, since these were the problems the students selected as being most vital in today's world.

1. As a group the students who attended this conference showed a keener interest in humanitarian or broad social problems than have most eighth grade students.
2. The students came from all sections of the country.
3. The students discussed only labour relations.<sup>17</sup>

Candidates were asked to select from the following range of answers: "true", "probably true", "insufficient data", "probably false", or "false". This



question was typical of the questions designed to test the various rational processes which were cited above.

The obvious difficulties that arise with such problems have already been indicated: the problem is artificially fragmented and, therefore, atypical of social situations. In order to combat this difficulty, Oliver and Shaver have developed a series of four tests which present more typical problem situations.<sup>18</sup> These tests, which are probably the most sophisticated produced by the proponents of the New Social Studies, will be used to reveal what appears to be the most comprehensive testing program recommended for common use in the New Social Studies. The tests are seen as complementary and each one is intended to extend the teacher's awareness of the student's ability.

The first test called Social Issues Analysis Test #1<sup>19</sup> (henceforth references to these tests will be by initials and numbers - S.I.A.T. #1, S.I.A.T. #2, etc.) is similar to the Watson-Glaser Appraisal. The S.I.A.T. #1 is more refined to the extent that the problems dealt with are considered to be total problems.



However, in the analysis of the dialogue the questions asked automatically break the problem into artificial fragments; it preselects items to be analyzed, and thereby directs the attention of students to features that are deemed important. In other words a fragmentary and artificial approach is still evident even though a more complete issue is presented.

S.I.A.T #2 is a similar test but:

Its purpose is to assess both how well the student can identify the substance of an argumentative dialogue (in contrast to the intellectual operations occurring in it) and the student's ability to select the best rebuttals which might be used to counter statements made in the dialogue.<sup>20</sup>

It is obvious from the claims of Oliver and Shaver the S.I.A.T. #2 is perceived as a necessary complement to S.I.A.T. #1. But the authors of the test recognize the inadequacies that have already been mentioned in reference to S.I.A.T. #1 apply to this test also, i.e., the problem of fragmentation.

A further test is developed, S.I.A.T. #3<sup>21</sup> which is a verbal test involving a one to one student-teacher ratio. In this test an argument is developed by the teacher or tester who assesses the student's substantive



knowledge as well as his ability to use relevant evidence, make inferences, and so on. There are certain advantages to this testing situation in that the situation is in one sense more realistic because it involves a verbal argument. Presumably it also enables the teacher to perceive more readily whether the student "had the idea" even if the idea is only crudely expressed.

Finally, the S.I.A.T. #4 involves what is intended to be an extremely "de-structured" testing situation in which a problem is given to one student by one evaluator:

This is essentially a two man group in which the level of sophistication of the person who is not being evaluated is controlled... the "interviewer reads a case to the student, asks for his opinion, and then is free to pursue whatever issues are raised by the student. Each interviewer is, however, provided with a "brief" setting forth major issues likely to be raised in discussion, along with arguments and analogies with which to confront the student as each issue is discussed.<sup>22</sup>

The interview is recorded and the statements used by the students are broken down into categories. These categories are analyzed and scored in a fashion similar to that used in interaction analysis.





The problems with S.I.A.T. #1 and #2 have already been suggested. The most serious problem with S.I.A.T. #3 and #4 is their time consuming nature and the obvious impossibility of providing one teacher (or trained interviewer) for each student. The problems of evaluating the new approaches to the social studies are thus not eliminated by Oliver and Shaver, but as will be suggested later, the tests they have devised can be used in a variety of ways to assist in the process of evaluation.

These procedures were not merely designed to evaluate the student's approach to reasoning, but also to consider his approach to respecting the rights of others. That is, Oliver and Shaver are insistent that the means used to solve a problem in a democratic society are means that take account of human dignity. Three things need to be said about this: first, the test situation may be exploited by the student to "fake" the desired results; secondly, the evaluator, if teacher, may be influenced by the "halo" effect. The halo effect is diminished if the evaluator is not familiar with the student and may be eliminated if the verbal discussions are taped and played back to other



evaluators, but this tends to further complicate matters as far as the time element is concerned. A third complication appears in the highly subjective nature of this evaluation. Although the teacher or tester may have taped interviews the actual control of the interview remains with the tester and if he misses opportunities that are provided by the student he may fail to do justice to the student's efforts.

The problem with the S.I.A.T.'s as well as with the Social Studies 30 Departmental examinations rests on the fact that the evaluation procedures are dependent upon isolated situations. The S.I.A.T.'s have the advantage of being replicable, but even so, they tend to give a limited perspective of the individual. It is also clear that while the S.I.A.T.'s emphasize the evaluation of reasoning, they are also planned to evaluate particular value dimensions. As a battery of examinations, the S.I.A.T.'s have some obvious advantages over the Social Studies 30 approach, but whether the advantages compensate for the problems of time involved is a matter of doubt. What is obvious, and which is admitted by the New Social Studies writers, is that much more research is needed on the problem of evaluation.



### Other Approaches to Evaluation

It would seem that Oliver and Shaver's approach to evaluation in the New Social Studies is one of the most comprehensive and effective. However, some additional points can be made about the roles of evaluation as well as about evaluation procedures. The following sections discuss the additional contributions that these other approaches can make to evaluation in the social studies.

#### Evaluating the Facts of the Case

Although it has been argued that too much stress has been placed on recalling factual statements, it must be recognized that students need to have a firm knowledge of such things as knowing the location of towns, of mineral deposits, of general topography, and so on, depending on the area of knowledge being studied. These facts can be learned in relation to particular issues, but there seems to be no need to use an external examination in order to know whether students have mastered such basic facts. The same can be claimed for checking the students' acquisition of skills such as map reading, chart interpretation, making statistical correlations, and so on. Knowledge



of these basic facts and skills can be evaluated without involving the anxiety of an external examination.

Another feature of teacher evaluation of the students' knowledge of the facts is that in discussing problems the teacher will be able to observe the facility that particular students have to draw upon their factual knowledge. For example, it is one thing to respond to a question by stating that the population of town X is ten thousand and that the population of town Y is fifteen thousand. It is quite another thing to be dealing with some other issue to do with town X and town Y, but to be able to cite the different population densities as being relevant to the issue in question. In other words, facility to identify relevant facts, especially when the relevance is not immediately apparent, can be efficiently assessed by the teacher.

#### Evaluating Sophistication in Reasoning

Initially, it must be recognized that the S.I.A.T.'s are procedures which can be incorporated into any program of evaluating the student's ability to reason as can other professionally developed tests such as the Watson-Glasner.<sup>23</sup> Another process which can be







effectively adapted for evaluating the student's ability to reason is the lowly essay. This instrument, as indeed the S.I.A.T.'s, can be developed for incorporation into the evaluation of the ability to respect one's fellow man. However, because of the tremendous potential of the essay as a means of evaluating the student's ability to reason, it will be treated separately in this section. In the following section, the total complex of evaluation procedures will be considered as a means of providing insight into a student's ability to reason as a human being who respects others.

The problem with the essay as a mode of evaluation is simply that different examiners evaluate in different ways, hence the problem of subjectivity. It is not argued that this problem can be fully overcome, but it can be diminished and seen in a perspective that enables the essay to furnish useful information about a student's competence in reasoning. In order to do this, an effort is made to exploit the use of an inventory which may be adapted for various purposes.

The aim of this evaluational procedure is to provide the student with the opportunity to reveal his



ability in using particular intellectual processes. The process to be evaluated will be indicated by the teacher, but beyond this indication no further structuring is intended. Thus, for example, once a selected problem has been studied, the teacher may ask any of the following kinds of questions:

Discuss the evidence and counter evidence for claiming that the Canadian Arctic is unlikely to support a large population.

Explain how you arrived at your conclusions regarding the Dominican Republic.

Discuss various hypotheses regarding Arctic development.

How would you test the recommendations made in the conclusions of the last issue under discussion?

The content of the question may vary according to the work that has been studied, but the process to be evaluated can apply to any content.

The question to be answered by the student must be treated in essay form which forces the student to organize his own answer. In order to diminish the possibility of "canned" answers, the teacher must be ready to give the question spontaneously, as it appears to work into the course, rather than at a prescribed



time. Furthermore, the teacher must be willing to seek the student's ability to use other processes on other occasions.

Since the emphasis in the evaluation is on processes not content, the teacher may use the same instrument on more than one occasion. The data used may be similar, but what is done with it will be different. This implies that the student who demonstrates that he uses evidence well: is able to collect data in a variety of different situations; is able to distinguish between gathering and using evidence and structuring hypotheses; and so on. Consider the following inventory which is developed specifically for the purpose of evaluating the student's ability to use evidence, but which may be used as a model to test other procedures:

Instrument for Evaluating  
The Use of Evidence

- I Specific items of data collected
  - A. Place check mark for each item of evidence used.
  - B. Place check mark for each item of evidence that appeared to be valid.
  - C. Place check mark for each item of evidence that appeared mis-used.



A-(B+C) = number of items of  
evidence that appear  
to be valid.

II Location of the Evidence

- A. Obviously perceived as generally acceptable.
- B. Evidence revealed after much searching.
- C. Irrelevant evidence presented.
- D. Evidence that needed unusual insight to be located.

III Presentation of evidence

- A. Was it stated clearly?
- B. Was it marshalled well?
- C. Was the evidence well summarized?

IV Use of Evidence

- A. Were the inferences made from the evidence valid?
- B. Was the evidence put to its obvious use?
- C. Was the evidence unusual but effective?
- D. Was the evidence ineffective?

Scoring:

Each item in Section I should be scored by indicating the number of specific items of evidence used or misused, i.e., ~~1111~~ 11 etc....

Each item in Sections II - IV should be scored on a five point scale. This will enable specific





judgements to be made and compared.

A series of advantages that accrue from the use of this testing inventory are outlined below:

1. The teacher can check his own evaluations by reassessing the essay using the same evaluation instrument at a different time.
2. Another teacher or a para-professional can use the inventory to assess the essay. This may be done as a check, but on other occasions a reliable para-professional could be employed to supplement the teacher's own evaluations.
3. The instrument is simple which is an important criterion for classroom use.
4. It has already been pointed out that the instrument is adaptable and can be used to evaluate various processes. At the same time the individual's knowledge of the 'facts' is evaluated.
5. If the instrument is used as part of an ongoing process of evaluation, it would be possible to distinguish between errors made by students which are "chance" errors and errors which are systematic and typical of the student. Thus, for example, the pursuit of an irrelevant topic on one occasion would be distinguished from the persistent tendency to study tangential issues.
6. The procedure used in #5 also provides a means of checking "faking" because a student would have to be extraordinarily capable to consistently assume the same attitude on every test. (The problem of faking is more of a difficulty in assessing respect for one's fellow men



which is the next separate topic to be treated in this dissertation).

7. "Halo" effect would be diminished because specific items would be checked as the evaluation proceeds. Re-checking by the teacher or by a second teacher (who knew nothing about the first evaluation) would reveal differences. The study of the different evaluations would provide a control on "halo" effect.

8. The inventory could be adapted for use in personal interviews and the teacher could use it while observing student effectiveness in debate.

9. The inventory may be seen as complementing the S.I.A.T.'s as well as any other professionally developed test of reasoning ability.

### Evaluating the Ability to Respect Others

Evaluation of the ability that an individual has to respect the dignity of others involves some different procedures of evaluation from those used in evaluating reasoning and factual knowledge. Not only are some of the procedures different often the role of the evaluation is different.

The point has been made that all testing can be used as a means to further learning on the part of the student and to further course development on the part of the teacher. The means used to do either is a matter of interaction between student and teacher.



Another common use of evaluation results is that of providing them to prospective employers or university personnel so that they may be used to assess prospective candidates. This issue raises certain moral problems which will be considered after a consideration of various processes that may be used in assessing the individual's ability to respect others.

The difficulties involved in evaluating the affective dimension are very great and, as has been indicated, they are commonly admitted.<sup>24</sup> Regardless of these difficulties, and the obvious need for further research, there is one formalized approach to evaluating attitudes which is generally accepted and which illustrates the approach to the problem:

The examiner first employs an attitude scale to determine the student's opinion on a controversial issue such as capital punishment. Then the cognitive core of the attitude is appraised by having the student state the major reasons for his holding such an opinion. When the opinion appears to have a weak cognitive base--that is, is based almost exclusively on hearsay or on emotion--the examiner presents the student with facts and information that are contrary to his view. Serious consideration of this information by the student, leading to change in sentiment or realization that the issue is more complex than he had thought suggest a 5.1 (i.e., a mature approach) mode of of approach.<sup>25</sup>



DeKock used a similar method in his study of racial attitudes which was reported in the last chapter.<sup>26</sup>

This approach is clearly useful in seeking for changes in attitude and behaviour that occur over a period of time. Given sufficiently rigorous experimental conditions, the value of certain teaching approaches, such as De Kock's, can be estimated. The willingness and ability for a student to change his attitude when his cognitive awareness is increased can also be inferred from such a procedure as the one discussed above.

There are a series of other testing procedures which can be used for evaluating the particular trait of behaviour under consideration here. These include: self-evaluation, evaluation by peers, and various techniques of evaluation by the teacher. There are numerous professionally prepared tests which may be used in this kind of evaluation. But the possibility of the teacher developing his own testing procedures for the evaluation of specific traits must be regarded as a promising area.

An example of a question taken from a self-evaluation procedure that is currently in the experimental





stage at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education is given below:

After a long and difficult trek into the bush you returned to your camp eating some of the food which was strictly rationed because of the distance from town. He said to you, "come on, eat up! Anyone else would do this." When all the rest of the campers returned some of the last back went short of food.

- (a) Should you have joined the first camper and consumed more than your ration?
- (b) Should you report the greedy camper?
- (c) Should you report him only if others went hungry?

These questions and answers are discussed by the teacher and class after they have been filled out and it is clear that the teacher will obtain some insights into the student's attitude to others from such a procedure.

However, these studies are still considered to be in their initial stages, so further improvement is a definite possibility.

Nominating techniques have been devised by Havighurst and Taba. This technique:

...simply asks one person to select or reject one or more persons from a given population or sample on the basis of some



attribute description, usually quite global in nature.<sup>27</sup>

Example of such techniques are:

Y is a very pleasant person, and people like to be with him. He will come more than half-way in most social relationships. Indeed, although not outstandingly popular he has more friends than the average person.

N is the sort of person everyone likes and who likes everyone. Boys and girls, young and old, are his friends. Wherever he goes, he is smiling and greeting people, often stopping to do something to help them.

S is sometimes quarrelsome and selfish and likes to have his own way. When in a good mood, he is pleasant and co-operative and attracts people. But this happens too infrequently, and therefore he has few permanent friends.<sup>28</sup>

This mode of evaluation depends on peer assessment and is one of the techniques that could be developed for use in the evaluation of a student's behaviour towards his fellow man.

The critical incident technique can be used by a teacher or another observer to contribute to the knowledge of tendency to respect other people:

The critical incident technique consists of a set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behaviour in such a way



as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles. The critical incident technique outlines procedures for collecting observed incidents having special significance and meeting specifically designed criteria.<sup>29</sup>

This technique can be used to compile a series of critical incidents about a person so that a general picture of his behaviour pattern may emerge.

A variation of the critical incident technique is a technique that can be easily used by a teacher when he decides to observe a student for a specified period of time. That is, the teacher observes the actions of a particular student during a discussion group or during some other period of class activity and then he records what he observes in anecdotal form.

Another insight into a student's attitudes may be obtained by an analysis of documents which he submits for evaluation. Thus, his essays and reports may provide some clues as to what he thinks and believes so that a greater understanding of a student's actions may be obtained. Modification of the essay inventory such as was discussed earlier in this chapter may be of use here.<sup>30</sup>



The possibilities of observation itself is extended by the use of tape-recorders and video-tapes which are becoming much more common in classroom use.<sup>31</sup> Modifications of micro-teaching may be used by a teacher when he believes that he has perceived a typical act of an individual student. Furthermore, the taping of a discussion may not only result in an extension of the awareness of a student's approach to the problem, but in an extended awareness of the student's attitude to others.

#### The Moral Issue in the Affective Dimension

More than any other kinds of tests these modes of evaluating the social attitude of others are subject to the criticism that they are an invasion of privacy.<sup>33</sup> Anastasi has argued that attitude tests are no more an invasion of privacy than I.Q. or achievement tests. Any of these tests can reveal things about individuals which some people would prefer to hide. To deny the use of attitude tests and not I.Q. and achievement tests in her view would be inconsistent. Furthermore, such a denial of the process of evaluation would inhibit one of the socially recognized tasks of the teacher: that of stating his view of the competence of a student.





The student often asks the teacher for a letter of reference; the employer often asks the teacher for his opinion of a student. In complying with both requests the teacher is normally expected to comment on the student's apparent ability in both the academic and social dimensions. Thus, one way of looking at the process of evaluation is that of satisfying the requests of the student and prospective employer, both of whom have a right to make the requests. The problem of the wrong people obtaining access to these materials is an entirely different matter and it is clear that such information should be carefully guarded.

If the teacher is expected to respond to the requests of students, prospective employers and university registrars, then it is reasonable that he obtains the best possible information for such use. The modes of evaluation discussed above are part of the search to provide the best possible information. There is, however, a major problem involved with such attitude tests as have been discussed above: they tend to go beyond the competency of the teacher and fall into the realm of psychologists.

Initially, it should be noted that no attempt has been made to describe tests which are very clearly



in the realm of the specialist psychologist. Such tests include use of pictorial techniques, sentence completions, and techniques like the Rorschach ink-blot tests. Even so, it may be argued that the teacher may over extend himself. One obvious safeguard is to discuss these matters with the guidance counsellor and the school psychologist, but there are other safeguards which will be revealed below in the discussion of the use of the tests as a mode of teaching and course development.<sup>34</sup>

#### Respecting Others and Teaching

A wide variety of evaluatory procedures have been discussed in the section on 'facts', reasoning and respecting others. In any combination, these evaluation procedures can be used to help extend the teacher's knowledge of his students. Now all these tests may be seen as supplementing the wide knowledge of students which a teacher naturally acquires.

Vernon, for example, indicates that the teacher's knowledge of a student is generally considered to be of such a nature that it can be used as a norm to test the effectiveness of specific instruments of evaluation.<sup>35</sup> Black and Knowles in a lengthy and



thorough study of the Grade XII examinations in Alberta indicate that such confidence is not misplaced.<sup>36</sup>

They show that the personal assessments of the teacher prove to be as effective an indicator of the student's success at university as does the total battery of Grade XII examinations.

The advantage of all the tests discussed so far is that they confirm or disconfirm the opinions of the teacher. If a teacher believes a student to be a co-operative, respectful and generous person and he discovers that students think the same person to be selfish, unco-operative and to respect no one, then the teacher has a puzzle. It may be solved by more careful observation, by the use of video tape, by a discussion with other teachers, but it may remain a problem. Whether solved or not the awareness of what others think, i.e., fellow students, other teachers, the psychologists, the interpretations of tests and so on, will provide the teacher with other perspectives for consideration.

The task of using the results of affective evaluation for developing a teaching program poses some sensitive problems. It would seem, however, that once a teacher has reason to believe that a student is disrespectful of the rights of others, it is his task



as teacher to do something about it. The teacher may make a straightforward approach such as, "John you insulted Charles yesterday for no apparent reason..."; he may show a video tape of a particular incident; he may cite evidence of indifference to the rights of others that was obtained via a critical incident or which was apparent in an essay, and so on. In any case, where the student transgresses the rights of another, it appears necessary that he be confronted with his transgressions. In this fashion probable consequences can be revealed to the transgressor (i.e., loss of friendships, quarrels, creation of factions, indifference to human feelings, and so on) and these consequences can be compared with the consequences likely to result from more respectful modes of behaviour.<sup>37</sup>

Given the establishment of a suitable class tone, the teacher (or perhaps a student) may introduce the topic of some one's or some group's discourteous actions. In this way the whole class may consider the act, the frequency that such acts occur, the justification for such acts, and so on. The whole point of the exercise being to reveal the general advantage of respecting one's fellow man. This







procedure could only be followed if a teacher was thoroughly familiar with his class and after the right class atmosphere had been developed.

This area of assessing human qualities such as respecting the rights of others is more sensitive than any other area of educational evaluation. It is clearly an area that demands a great deal of research, but it is also apparent that the teacher is not without tools which can assist him in evaluating his students. The one thing that needs to be kept in mind is that the teacher may judiciously use the various technical devices discussed above as a way of supplementing his awareness of his students and as a means of extending his students' concept of human dignity.

#### An Additional Process of Evaluation

In most cases there seems little doubt that the methods discussed above will provide the teacher with a fairly reliable picture of his students. However, in the case of inconsistency, whether in the teacher's records or personal opinion, or in the opinions of other teachers, it appears that, as far as the factual and reasoning dimensions are concerned, there is still



one more recourse. This reference is to the tests which have been developed by the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (O.I.S.E.)<sup>38</sup> and the Service for Admission to College and University (S.A.C.U.).<sup>39</sup>

The aim of both groups mentioned above is to seek an assessment of the student's ability without influencing the teacher's work during any academic year. The nature of these tests is kept secret so that a teacher cannot orient his work to this examination. The tests are distributed to students who are given a careful time limit. After writing the tests, the papers are returned to a central office of evaluation. This provides a totally independent evaluation of the student's cognitive ability.

The obvious value of such tests lie in their independence. Their obvious weakness is that they are only given to students on one occasion, and it must be assumed that the single test reveals a typical performance. However, given the variety of evaluation procedures discussed here, any particular evaluation may be perceived as part of a complex of evaluations. Thus, over a period of years a student could be expected to have accumulated sufficient of



the following test results to present a fairly consistent pattern of behaviour: I.Q., achievement tests, attitude tests, S.I.A.T. type tests, essay inventory, anecdotal statements of behaviour in various situations, and so on.

### Course Evaluation

In concluding this chapter on evaluation, it will be useful to consider an entirely different goal of evaluation. That is, course evaluation as opposed to the evaluation of students of the course. This dissertation has been concerned with the evaluation of two courses, and in the final chapter, an effort will be made to cite any advantages or disadvantages which have been revealed as a result of this analysis.

The course evaluation has been undertaken in three ways:

- a. by matching goals and course content
- b. by matching goals and examination content
- c. by matching course and examination content.<sup>40</sup>



As far as the Social Studies 30 was concerned, this procedure offered little difficulty. Goals, course content, and examinations were clearly demarcated because the Social Studies 30 was a well established course. The New Social Studies program, however, is a program that is still in its experimental stage, so just comparisons were difficult. An "established" course taught by all the provincial teachers of that particular program is quite different from a course which is only used in some schools. In the latter case, problems of special selection of students and staff, Hawthorne effect, and so on, may come into play.

Regardless of these difficulties, the evaluation undertaken here should still enable some useful comparisons to be made. In fact, this form of comparison of old and new programs seems necessary if adjustment to either program is contemplated. The knowledge that one program is barely out of the experimental stage and that one program has been functioning for many years is part of the general awareness that a course evaluator must possess when he makes assessments regarding the courses in question. Granted these difficulties, what does a





comparison of courses offer?

The first feature that should become apparent is the identification of the strong and weak points in each program. Next the analysis may reveal that one or both programs are not meeting the new needs of the student population. Perhaps there is insufficient concentration in one course on process and in another on content; perhaps there is a need for less emphasis on final examinations, but if this is the case, alternative modes of evaluation must be clearly stated. If examinations are to evaluate some things and not others, decisions have to be made regarding what attainments will be evaluated by which method, and so on. Problems of this nature may be ameliorated by the kind of program evaluations that have been undertaken here.<sup>41</sup>

This analysis is a first step. Scriven points out that the tripartite analysis (goals, course content and examinations), as discussed in this section, needs to be carried out by independent observers.<sup>42</sup> In this kind of replication obvious points of confirmation can be identified and efforts can be made to carry out whatever actions are suggested by the confirmations. On the other hand, areas



of confusion may be clarified when the bias of particular investigators show, where factual errors are made, where reasoning is faulty, or where irrelevancy has been pursued.

The discussion of course evaluation which has been undertaken here sets the stage for the final review and the statement of conclusions of this work. If the analysis and comparison of courses which have been undertaken here provide some insights into the problems that have been revealed in this section, then the effort will have been worthwhile.



### References

1. See Chapter I, Supra., p.1; and Chapter II, Supra., p.75.
2. Paul L. Dressel, "The Role of Evaluation in the Introductory College Social Studies", in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias (eds.), Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1964), p. 230.
3. The volume cited by Dressel was: Truman L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934). See Ibid.
4. Ibid., p. 219.
5. Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation", in Social Science Consortium #10, Layette, Indiana 1966; p. 24.
6. Ibid., p. 3.
7. Donald W. Oliver and James P. Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966).
8. See, for example, Michael Scriven, "Student Values as Educational Objectives", in The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol XII, #2, 1966.
9. Michael Scriven, Primary Philosophy (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1966), p. 232.
10. Quoted in Arne Naess, Democracy (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1956), p. 295.
11. Scriven, Methodology of Evaluation, p. 3.
12. Chapter IV, Supra., pp. 142-143.
13. Chapter IV, Supra., pp. 135-139.



14. Chapter V, Supra., p. 193.
15. Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit., passim.
16. Goodwin Watson and Edward M. Glazer, Watson-Glazer Critical Thinking Appraisal (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961).
17. Ibid.
18. Social Issues Analysis Tests #1, #2, #3, and #4 in Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit.
19. Ibid., p. 191.
20. Ibid., p. 194.
21. Ibid., p. 204.
22. Ibid., p. 213.
23. Watson and Glazer, Op. Cit.
24. David R. Krathwhol, et. al., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: David McKay, 1956), pp. 12-13.
25. Ibid., p. 168.
26. Paul DeKock, "Simulation and Change in Racial Attitudes", in Social Education, Vol. 33, #2, Feb. 1966, pp. 181-183.
27. John E. Horrocks and Thelma I. Schooner, Measurement for Teachers (Ohio: Charles Merrill Publishing Co., 1968)., p. 445.
28. Ibid., pp. 446-447.
29. Ibid., p. 444.
30. Supra., p. 266.
31. See, for example, Oliver and Shaver, Op. Cit., p. 208.





32. Ibid.

33. Anne Anastasi, "Psychology, Psychologists and Psychological Testing", in Norman Gronlund, Education and Psychology (New York: McMillan Co., 1968), p. 437.

34. It seems that no specific rules can be laid down regarding who should be given information about students on which tests should or should not be used to make evaluations. These things are a matter of judgement and the general rules which aid the making of such judgements have been suggested, but the precise application depends on the individual person in the specific situation.

35. Phillip E. Vernon, Personality Tests and Assessments (London: Methuen and Co., 1953), p. 96 and p. 120.

36. Donald W. Knowles and Donald B. Black, "The Effectiveness of Grade XII Principals' Rating Scores..." in Alberta Journal of Educational Research, Vol. XI, #2, June 1965, p. 130.

37. The expression "respectful" is used in the sense of "having respect for another".

38. O.I.S.E. Tests, Department of Testing and Measurement, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario.

39. Service for Admission to College and University, 151 Slater Street, Ottawa 4, Ontario.

40. See, Scriven, The Methodology of Evaluation, p. 32.

41. Ibid., passim.

42. Ibid., p. 32.



## CHAPTER VII

### REVIEW, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the review of the work undertaken here, each of the three main aims of the dissertation will be treated: first by considering the Social Studies 30 program, and then, by dealing with the New Social Studies program. The consideration of the latter will lead into a statement of recommendations derived from the body of this work. The study will conclude with a discussion of recommendations for further research and inquiry.

#### Facts in the Social Studies 30

##### 1. (a) What is meant by precise factual knowledge?

With respect to the facts it was found that this program was dependent upon factual statements which were mainly taken from the text Canada in the Modern World<sup>1</sup>, the current affairs magazine World Affairs<sup>2</sup>, and from school atlases. The facts as stated in these sources, appeared to be regarded as "precise factual



knowledge". This approach to facts was clearly intended to provide the student with a body of reliable knowledge upon which he could build a more sophisticated awareness of the social studies.

It was argued in Chapter III that in this approach, the factual level of the Social Studies 30 curriculum seemed to dominate. Although it is obvious that any inquiry in the social studies must involve a knowledge of the facts, it is not at all obvious that simply being able to recall the facts is sufficient evidence that the facts are "known".

As was indicated, knowledge seemed to be reduced to "knowing that"<sup>3</sup>. There was little evidence in the Social Studies 30 examination that students were expected to come to grips with the problems associated with facts, although questions of Type III, IV, V and VI gave students an opportunity to show that they could do some things with facts, other than recalling them. However, from 1960 to 1966 it was apparent that the main emphasis was on the recall of factual material.



1. (b) What grounds are used to justify claims to facticity?

It would seem that facticity in the Social Studies 30 was justified by reference to such sources as Canada in the Modern World<sup>4</sup>, World Affairs<sup>5</sup>, an atlas, the Curriculum Guide<sup>6</sup>, and statements from the Department of Education<sup>7</sup>, and so on. In general the facts used in these works seemed to be reliable and they seemed to provide the student with a fairly coherent and basic body of knowledge that would lead to an understanding of certain aspects of the social studies. The advantage of this approach is that curriculum specialists can provide students with a basic core of knowledge which they regard as essential to understanding significant concepts.

The problem with this method is made apparent in Chapter III<sup>8</sup>. Basically, it is that when facts are justified by authority, and when this authority must be accepted, (as in external examinations) research and inquiry are inhibited. The result is that, although the student may have acquired a substantial body of





reliable factual knowledge, he was not encouraged to be critical of it. This proved to be the case even in situations where some of the facts justified by the authorities cited in the last paragraph, transpired to be in error.

1. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the extent to which students can be credited with a mastery of the facts?

Given the authority of the authorized text, the current affairs journal and the school atlas, it is not difficult to assess a particular student's mastery of the facts. That is, a range of questions can be devised which are based on the three sources cited in this paragraph, and the student is asked to answer them. His success in this task will provide an indication of how well he is able to recall the facts as stated in the texts.

In the analysis undertaken in Chapter III, it was revealed that such an approach, as is described in the last paragraph, even though common in the social studies,



is overly simplistic. To have a mastery of the facts implies that one is not merely able to recall them, but that one is able to test their validity, verity and relevance and to be able to use them when necessary.

Although the ability to recall factual statements when required is clearly one feature of having a mastery of the facts, it is also clear that simply being able to recall is insufficient evidence of mastery. As was indicated in the analysis of facts in Chapter III it is possible to recall: alleged facts that are not facts; to accept judgements as if they were factual statements; to accept unreliable statements of facts as true; to select certain facts and to ignore other facts which bear on the same issue; to accept holistic facts as individual facts; and so on<sup>9</sup>. The recall or acceptance of such alleged facts is not evidence of the mastery of the facts. Indeed it sometimes proves to be evidence of being misled<sup>10</sup>. Under the circumstances it would seem that mastery of the facts involves more than recalling them, but it was the aspect of recall that was emphasised in the Social Studies 30.



### Facts in the New Social Studies

The acquisition of precise factual knowledge was not specifically stated as an objective of the New Social Studies, nevertheless, it is obvious that the proponents of the New Social Studies must recognize the problem of facts. The approach which they adopt will be discussed under the same headings which were used to consider the approach to facts in the Social Studies 30 program.

1. (a) What is meant by precise factual knowledge?

Due to the emphasis on inquiry, the proponents of the New Social Studies were concerned with facts as they related to particular problems being studied. This means that the problem under study provides a context within which facts are sought, tested, clarified and used. Precise factual knowledge is not a term that applies in perpetuity to any datum that has been found dependable and relevant on a particular occasion. That is, if a problem has been solved on one occasion, by using a particular body of factual evidence which was



carefully gathered, publicly tested and confirmed, then that evidence has proved functional for a particular purpose.

It has been indicated that facts in the social sciences have to be judged by social, personal and cultural criteria for their facticity; they depend upon objective methodological criteria for their scientific value as an adequate epistemological instrument; and by ethical considerations as to their worth, utility and significance. Under these circumstances, it is clear that: social, cultural and personal conditions may change; that new methodological criteria may be discovered; and that ethical considerations may vary with the problem being considered. For these reasons, precise factual knowledge in the social studies is a function of a set of conditions which may vary at any given time.

An infinite number of precise facts are available in the social sciences: names of government officials; acts of Parliament; import-export details; geographical





facts such as "Halifax is an ice-free port"; and so on. Such facts are analagous to the facts that are obtained in the natural sciences under controlled laboratory conditions. Errors are possible, but the means by which the facts are confirmed are public and replicable. There is no doubt that precise factual knowledge is made up of such facts, but in the New Social Studies a means of ordering this infinite amount of material is at hand in the form of the context provided by the problem.

It is also evident that there is a great deal of other factual material available about which there may be disagreement. Such facts include: the Canadian Arctic is unable to support a large population; the Organization of American States intervened in the affairs of the Dominican Republic in order to prevent another Cuba; China is endeavouring to establish a more defensible border with India; China is acquiring more territory from India to satisfy its nationalist craving; and so on. Such alleged facts are open to wide



disagreement and the justification for using one set of data as opposed to another can only be because the evidence has been scrutinized within the limits available.

Even after such scrutiny, the student may be forced to use a statement of fact which he recognizes as tenuous.

Under such circumstances, the student may be forced to function with less than precise factual knowledge.

However, when a student operates with material that appears to be inadequate he should always be alert to the possibility of making more precise the factual data in his possession. The ability to do this manifests a scientific attitude to the treatment of facts in the social studies.

1. (b) What grounds are used to justify claims to facticity?

It would seem that enough has already been written in this review chapter with regard to justifying claims to facticity. In brief, claims to the existence of facts are made on the grounds of personal observation which is influenced by the social and cultural experiences



of the individual. They are judged by objective methodological criteria for their scientific value as an adequate epistemological instrument, and by ethical considerations as to their worth, utility and significance. Thus, although an infinite number of particular facts may be justified on grounds of facticity, what is significant to students in the New Social Studies is that these facticity claims be evaluated by the methods of the social sciences and that the value of the facts be justified by a demonstration of their relevance to issues under study.

1. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the extent to which students can be credited with a mastery of facts?

In the New Social Studies program the emphasis is very definitely on knowing the processes by which facts may be judged as reliable and useful. The recall of facts, while necessary, does not receive the emphasis that is placed upon the dimension in traditional social studies programs. The term "mastery" is more



broadly interpreted to mean familiarity with the wide range of procedures that have already been discussed in 1 (a) and 1 (b). For this reason much of the evaluation of the student's mastery of the facts must take place in the context of their use. The traditional written tests of the social studies programs need to be supplemented by an ongoing program of evaluation in which students are forced to demonstrate their ability to select facts, test and evaluate their reliability and relevance, utilize them to shed light on various issues, and so on. The process of evaluation in the New Social Studies program is an integral part of the course in as much as it reveals to both student and teacher the areas of work that need to be developed. Further references to the process of evaluation will be made as this summary proceeds.

#### Reason in the Social Studies 30

2. (a) What is meant by using reason to solve social problems?

The analysis of the Social Studies 30 program





revealed quite well the position taken on reasoning by proponents of this group. Notwithstanding the official position as stated in the various official guides, the process of reasoning demanded in the Social Studies 30 examination was that of an Essentialist approach<sup>12</sup>.

That is, students were forced to depend on the authority of the text and, in general, their reasoning processes meant working from the facts presented in the text.

In this context students were introduced to defining, describing, explaining, maintaining coherence of data, locating inconsistencies in written arguments, deriving statistics from charts and so on. These processes which may be subsumed under the title "critical thinking"<sup>13</sup> received attention in the Social Studies 30 program. In the Essentialist tradition, it has been argued, such an approach to reasoning, in order to solve problems, would be considered adequate preparation for students who were continuing their education beyond the high school<sup>14</sup>.



2. (b) What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available to enable students to use reason to solve social problems?

Given the Essentialist approach to education, the Social Studies 30 course does reveal how reasoning, within the limits of the classroom and within the limits of certain specified tests, can be developed. If the factual data in the official texts are accepted as true then students can be expected to learn definitions, read maps, read charts and diagrams, locate inconsistent use of definitions in ways that have long been established in education. The teacher shows how these processes are employed, the student tries them out and the teacher corrects and advises. This is an appropriate and proven way to perform certain critical thinking tasks, but it has been argued there are other essential tasks which students should learn but rarely have an opportunity to do so in a traditional classroom.<sup>15</sup>

2. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?



As with an assessment of a student's factual knowledge, so it is possible to assess a student's ability to reason in the terms established by the authority of the text and the Department of Education. Questions of Types II, III, IV, V and VI all provided students with a test of their ability to perform certain stipulated processes. These are necessary and useful, but it has been shown that a concentration at this level is inadequate and needs to be extended from an emphasis on aspects of critical thought to an emphasis which involves critical thought and inquiry.

#### Reason in the New Social Studies

2. (a) What is meant by using reason to solve social problems?

In the New Social Studies the process of reasoning includes the mode of reasoning emphasized in the Social Studies 30 program, but it also stresses the need to use the process of inquiry. This process has been variously described, but Dewey's formulation as it appears on page 159 seems to be fairly generally accepted.



It has been argued that insufficient attention has been paid to the actual location and statement of the problem<sup>16</sup> and that the concluding phase of inquiry has not always been sufficiently clarified<sup>17</sup>. However these issues will be discussed in the concluding subsection of this review of reason.

2. (b) What methods, if any, are available, or can be made available, to enable students to use reason to solve social problems?

The processes of reasoning, as discussed in the section on reasoning in the Social Studies 30, are recognized as necessary, but they have to be extended. In the view of the proponents of New Social Studies the student needs to become familiar with the initial feeling of confusion; to learn to state problems himself; to find, interpret and evaluate the evidence; to propose hypotheses; to test hypotheses (both symbolically and actually); and to justify why one hypothesis is selected over others. These processes, in the view of the proponents of the New Social Studies, should involve students in significant problems of society. When they





deal with these problems students may learn how to use the processes of reasoning that lead to a better understanding of these issues. Due to the value judgements that are implicit in such processes (selecting problems, evaluating the evidence, choosing the best solution and so forth) a full discussion of how students can be taught to reason, in the sense advocated by the proponents of the New Social Studies, will be postponed until the problem of values is treated.

2. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

It was indicated in the review of 1 (c) as it related to the New Social Studies, that the process of evaluation was integrally related to the general process of education. Furthermore, the process of reasoning becomes a very real social process in the New Social Studies. Evaluation, as it was manifested in the Social Studies 30 program is still necessary. Beyond this approach it is essential that students demonstrate that they can define problems, that they



can locate evidence, construct hypotheses etc. The methods by which these processes can be evaluated were discussed in Chapter VI<sup>18</sup>. There seems little doubt that evaluation of the student's approach to reasoning can be undertaken, but more research is needed to seek for procedures that are less time consuming or which can be more easily handled by para-professionals.

Respect for Persons and Social Studies 30

3. (a) What is meant by developing a sense of respect for one's fellow men?

It was argued that Bulletin I held a strongly moral position with regard to respecting one's fellow men. That is, the position described as manifesting respect for one's fellow man was an active position that involved more than the mere recognition of the statutes. It meant a willingness to assist those in need; to co-operate with others to achieve common goals; to actively seek the removal of discriminatory attitudes and legislation and so on. This is clearly what was meant by a "sense of respect", but there was little



evidence that students were taught how such an attitude to one's fellow man could be developed.

3. (b) What methods if any are available, or can be made available to enable students to respect their fellow men?

It appears that there are few well organized and systematic approaches to the development of respect in traditional social studies programs. Traditionally, the development of human respect in students has depended upon the teacher's attitude in the classroom: the selection of reading materials; the emphasis on the work of organization such as the Red Cross; the study of developing countries; the consideration of Quebec separatism, etc. However, given the importance of external examinations and the tendency of these examinations to concentrate on testing the ability of the student to recall the facts, the value dimension of human respect is unlikely to be systematically pursued. This assertion is supported by the fact that Bulletin I<sup>19</sup> indicated that systematic means of



developing the concept of human respect were simply not available. Additional support for this position may be obtained by reference to the fact that a study of the work of the proponents of the New Social Studies while revealing some new approaches emphasize the need for further research.

3. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

It was argued that the position taken by the writers of Bulletin I stated a strongly moral position as far as the Social Studies 30 were concerned. Unfortunately, this position did not manifest itself in the examination papers to any great extent. As has been indicated, there were some questions which held the potential to evaluate the individuals attitude to others (questions on Quebec separatism and on developing African countries), but in general there seemed to be no systematic effort to evaluate the student's ability to respect his fellow men.





## Respect for Persons and the New Social Studies

3. (a) What is meant by developing a sense of respect for one's fellow men?

The same position on human respect is adopted by proponents of the New Social Studies as by proponents of the Social Studies 30. That is, a strong moral position is held which is manifested when individuals make an effort to assist those in need; to co-operate with others to achieve common goals; to actively seek for the removal of discriminatory attitudes; and so forth.

One of the contributions made by the proponents of the New Social Studies to the development of the concept of respect is the recognition that the value dimension is involved with the solving of social problems. Moreover, they argue that this process should be learned while problem solving is in process. That is, an individual who is faced with coming to a decision on some social issue, is likely to come to the best decision when he considers all the relevant evidence in a rational



fashion and is guided by the concept of human dignity in arriving at his conclusion.

The classroom provides a public forum in which the stated problem is a result of public discussion: the evidence is tested openly: the hypotheses are compared and contrasted, etc. Finally, the solution proposed should be debated in terms of its reasonableness and in terms of the way that it takes account of human dignity.

This approach to morality is one that is rooted in Mannheim's Utopian perspective<sup>20</sup>; in Kant's categorical imperative<sup>21</sup>; in Raup's democratic community<sup>22</sup>; and particularly as stated here, in Scriven's strong moral position with regard to respect for one's fellow men<sup>23</sup>. It is this position which is regarded as basic in a democratic society. If it is accepted, then a guide to the selection of problems is provided by such an acceptance. The teacher interacting with his students, directs attention to confusions in society which involve conflicts of human rights. When a confusion has been



selected for study, it is stated as a problem. The problem as defined then becomes significant in terms of seeking evidence, developing hypotheses etc. In a democratic society the value orientation is significant in arriving at the problem to be studied, and in choosing the best hypothesis for the purpose of testing.

3. (b) What methods, if any, are available or can be made available, to enable students to respect their fellow men?

The problem centred approach discussed in the answer to the preceding question (3 (a) of the New Social Studies) is clearly one way of introducing students to the value problems of a democratic society. The guidance of the teacher who embraces the traditional values of democracy is essential. He should test his students' arguments and he should continually endeavour to direct his students to seek the most satisfactory solution to the problem. That is, the one which least encroaches on the rights of those who are influenced by the solution.

It has been suggested that one method of introducing



students to the concept of human dignity is by capitalizing on the conceptual position of Mead.<sup>24</sup> Mead and Merleau-Ponty<sup>25</sup> argue that in becoming members of society individuals take the perspective of others and in so doing hold a form of respect for others. This "respect" is what MacLagan calls "passive sympathy or empathy".<sup>26</sup> The aim of a social studies program that desires to inculcate a strong moral position should be to move from MacLagan's passive sympathy to active sympathy and concern. It was hypothesized that one way of doing this would be via the processes of role playing, Verstehen, participant-observation, simulation techniques, action-research and so on.<sup>27</sup> These techniques would provide the student with a perspective of the world which would enable him to understand the problems of others in a more realistic sympathetic fashion. Given the positive guidance of the teacher, the hypothesis presented was that if such techniques as have been discussed in this paragraph were used, they would prove conducive to developing active sympathy, and hence





concern, for one's fellow men. However, since this is a hypothesis it will have to be tested in classroom conditions.

It is important to note, that the necessity to pay attention to the needs and desires of a democratic state, implies public debate and discussion. The role of the expert is recognized as contributing data that will assist in the solving of problems, but the ultimate decision of social issues rests with the citizen. For this reason it is essential that the citizen be able to perform his role rationally and according to the values of a democratic society.

It would seem that these processes are best learned by trying to work them out in relation to significant problems in society. After conclusions have been reached it would also seem to be necessary to reconsider the whole process and, when the occasion arises, to try and put the process into operation on the problems of society. It would seem that this process of publicly thinking through problems; proposing solutions; putting



the solutions into operation and finally re-considering what has been done, is an essential task of education.

However, as was pointed out in Chapter V it is not always (often) possible to test hypotheses in other than a symbolic sense.

3. (c) How is it possible to evaluate the degree to which this objective is achieved?

The S.I.A.T.'s suggest one mode of evaluation, and another common mode of evaluating attitudes is that of giving students attitude test before and after a particular experience. Other modes of evaluation include anecdotal summaries, analysis of essays, selected comments from essays, observing behaviour etc. However the techniques of evaluation of the affective domain are in more need of research than any other.



Recommendations for Further  
Research and Inquiry

Throughout this dissertation reference has been made to the serious citizen of a democracy. The basic qualities of such a person are clearly apparent; he should be an effective inquirer, and he should be actively concerned with the welfare of his fellow men. Such a person should be familiar with the scientific method, but this is not merely the reconstructed logic of the natural sciences. The citizen in a democratic society has the traditions of that society to guide his behaviour. Within these traditions, it is possible to identify one solution to a problem which is better than another solution. Sometimes this distinction is difficult or impossible to make but, when it is possible, it is made by using reason and by attending to the democratic protocols that are operative in the given case (and this latter act is also a matter of reason). Once the best solution in terms of the specific situation has been determined, it is the duty of the serious citizen to act in the best way.

The process of social inquiry is clearly much less developed than the process of inquiry in the natural sciences. The problem of selecting data, of



experiment is much more complex and prediction is less reliable. Social techniques are limited in comparison with the techniques of the natural sciences; however, it was indicated how recent writers such as Oliver and Shaver have developed new and fruitful techniques which suggest some of the potential packed into the concept of inquiry in the social studies.

Teachers who make use of the work of writers such as Oliver and Shaver, Scriven, and so on will be pursuing a course of studies that is directed at producing the serious citizen. It will, however, be necessary to evaluate the work that is being undertaken in the school. For this reason research and development in the education of the citizen for democracy must be complemented by research and development of evaluation techniques.

Studies into the education of a serious citizen must extend far beyond the confines of the classroom. It must extend to philosophy, teacher education, methodology and administration.

### Philosophy

There are three main problems that stand out in this area; two have been discussed by Edel<sup>28</sup> and one





has been discussed by Troutner<sup>29</sup> and Pfuetze.<sup>30</sup> Edel argues that if the process of inquiry as discussed by Dewey is used as a starting place, two further requirements are necessary: a search of the sciences for insights into the common needs of men,<sup>31</sup> and a refinement of the conceptual instruments used in dealing with moral problems.<sup>32</sup>

The search of the sciences must presumably take place at a philosophical level and apparently it will involve moral philosophers and scientists who work together to seek out the common needs of man that have significant moral impact. It appears that this is an area for specialized scholars, but it is certainly an area that needs to be pursued. However, even this level of research cannot be pursued without an awareness of the complexities of social problems. Edel's proposal involves interdisciplinary research and a close involvement with the problems of politicians, social workers and so on. In this approach the moral philosopher would appear to take the role of a coordinator who endeavours to get at the key results of the scientists and who then applies these results to moral issues.



Secondly, Edel believes it is necessary to seek for more effective conceptual tools to deal with moral issues. Again Edel believes that the sciences may provide some of these instruments. However, it is clear that the work done by Nagel,<sup>33</sup> Kaplan<sup>34</sup> and Scriven<sup>35</sup> on concepts such as explanation, definition, hypothesis and so on are extremely important when it comes to clarifying social problems. How this area of research is important from the point of view of the educator will be discussed below.

Dewey's work in inquiry and Mead's work in child development have been criticized for paying insufficient attention to the truly human dimensions of the individual. Whether this criticism is valid or not, the efforts made by Troutner<sup>36</sup> to reveal the relationship between pragmatism and existentialism, and the efforts made by Pfuetze to reveal the relationship between Mead and Buber are well worth exploring.<sup>37</sup> The processes aimed at developing active sympathy: role playing, Verstehen, participant-observation, etc., are related to the pragmatic position, and also seem to be related to the problems of concern to the existentialists. A typical problem is that of objectification of the individual and how it can be



avoided. Existentialism must surely have some insights to offer here.

### Teacher Education

Edel has commented on two needs: the location of empirically verifiable requirements for man's survival and happiness; and the refinement of conceptual tools which are necessary instruments for an improvement in the ability to consider social problems.<sup>38</sup> The first of these requirements is clearly a matter of further research amongst the scholarly disciplines, but even here some of the insights developed by Edel seem to be of fundamental importance to teachers of social studies. The philosophers of science have, however, refined such concepts as defining, explaining, hypothesizing and so on to a degree of effectiveness that is not normally recognized by social studies teachers. It is in this dimension that teacher education seems to require refinement.

In dealing with teacher education, it is useful to make use of Ayer's concept of first order and second order knowledge.<sup>39</sup> At present, in Canadian universities students studying to become teachers normally pursue their studies of first order knowledge in faculties



of arts or faculties of science. First order knowledge being knowledge of subject matter: history, sociology, economics, anthropology, literature, etc.

Second order knowledge, however, is knowledge about the subject matter. That is, for example, it is not a matter of being able to explain a particular historical problem, it is a matter of knowing what is involved in the process of explanation. When the teacher has to explain something, the explanation which he would use in communicating with a grade 10 student may differ from the explanation which he would give as an instructor of a graduate seminar.

In order to be sure that he has provided a satisfactory explanation, the teacher must know what an explanation is. Similarly, when a teacher corrects the work of a student, he must draw upon his knowledge of explanation per se in order to suggest improvements. This is the case with all the processes involved in the various disciplines.

One clear function of the method courses becomes apparent: they must develop this second order knowledge so that students become familiar with defining, describing, analyzing, hypothesizing, and so on. This





throws a powerful philosophical bias to methods courses, but this must be complemented by demonstrating how these various processes operate in non-discipline situations since the student-teacher will already be familiar with the specific manifestations of these operations in his own discipline.

It is not necessary to belabour the fact that here is an area demanding further study. It will be necessary to study these abstract processes such as defining and explaining much more deeply and yet it will be necessary to use these processes at "every-day" levels of operation. This is truly a Deweyan demand--the need to unite abstract theory with common practice.

Another concept that has to be treated at a second order level would be the processes of Verstehen, participant-observation, and so on. These processes, it has been argued, lead into the existentialist position and, because of the importance of existentialists and their analyses of concepts such as anomie and freedom, it is important that the student-teacher of the social studies be aware of these issues. But, how can a student-teacher be expected to know all these things?



In reply to this question, it should be pointed out that the student is not expected to research into these philosophical positions. He is expected to learn something of the research that others have done and when he has need to use these concepts, he will be in a position to know where to learn more about them. Teacher education can only hope to provide the student with some primitive tools which will become refined with use. The function of these tools will be revealed in the practical activity of the school and when function demands greater refinement, all that can be expected of teacher education is that the teacher knows where to seek for further development of his instruments. In passing it should be noted that the concepts referred to are not like strange and exotic ideas. The student has tried to explain, define, hypothesize and so on, and he has surely been aware of some of the problems of alienation and freedom. Second order knowledge is intended to clarify the nature of these concepts so that they may be used with more competence.

This mode of study should introduce other dimensions of second order knowledge, the most important



of which involves the concept of integration of subject matter. The process of inquiry involves more than one discipline, as has already been suggested, but a theoretical position regarding the integration of subject matter and the place of the disciplines needs to be studied. Work such as that of Belth may be of significance in this issue.<sup>40</sup>

A particular perspective of the integration of subject matter has received little attention, that is, the involvement of literature with the social studies. The process of Verstehen suggests that such an integration is important as a means of learning to respect others as well as for the development of hypotheses. But literature may be used to extend the concept of Verstehen especially in the dimension of respecting one's fellow man. Indeed, the possible contributions of literature to the social studies are very great and ways of incorporating literature into social studies must be sought.

#### The Methodological Level

The problem of teacher education has already dealt with certain methodological issues and much of the work of this dissertation has been involved with



describing, justifying and comparing various methodological approaches. The point that now needs to be considered is: Are these methods actually effective?

Unless the social studies program succeeds in getting the student to think like a serious citizen, then the main thrust of the program will have been frustrated. Studies, however, have indicated that where isolated attempts (that is, isolated within a school program) have been made to develop changes in attitude they have generally failed. Where attempts have been made to change student attitudes in a coherent fashion throughout the school, results have been much more promising.<sup>41</sup>

To involve the whole school, however, demands a closer alignment of subject matter. Ideally, of course, some kind of integration of subject matter is necessary. But is such an approach practical in the school situation? It is here that one moves from research to development. Some studies suggest that a total school approach is possible and a recent report tabled by a committee in Canada's most populous province has indicated that so convinced are they of the evidence that the school can influence moral development that





they have recommended that schools adopt an interdisciplinary approach to education.<sup>42</sup> This approach is not simply to run through one subject or for one year. It is intended to be a total, coherent attack on the development of a sound moral attitude extending throughout the school life of every child.

Such an approach is the recognition that what is being dealt with is the development of habit. Dewey's stipulation of the term is accepted here:

Habit means special sensitiveness of accessibility to certain classes of stimuli, standing predilections and aversions, rather than mere recurrence of specific acts.<sup>43</sup>

Thus, reading, writing, performing mathematical skills, speaking foreign languages, and so on, are all habits. For example, a person who is able to read has a "... special sensitiveness to certain classes of stimuli...." If he reads frequently and effectively, he will tend to make use of his reading both for problem solving and pleasure. If his reading is ill developed, he will be averse to using it.<sup>44</sup>

Two points can be made with reference to the development of the kind of habits that Dewey talks about, (a) they take a long time to develop, (b) there must be a great deal of practice. The first



point is particularly significant. In learning to read or write, the student is shown how to do the basic work, but from that point onwards all the teacher can do is to encourage reading and writing. The child must make the effort for himself.

The temptation with problem solving in the social sciences is for the teacher to short circuit the student's efforts by telling him how to solve his problem and by demanding a specific kind of answer. In the post-hole approach, the teacher may well relay information to his students and demonstrate how particular problems are solved. But when a teacher discovers a problem of an educative nature which is of interest and significance to his students, then the temptation to solve the problem for the students must be resisted.

Students should go through the process of solving problems; they must be given the chance to explain and defend their solutions and nothing is gained by cutting short the research "to save time." Skills are always learned by time consuming processes. The skill of problem solving is not contrary to this rule. But even if learning to read or write takes many years, once such skills are acquired, they can be performed



rapidly. The difficulty with the process of inquiry is that it is not merely time consuming, but that it is all embracing. Whether or not the schools can make such a massive re-adjustment remains a matter for research.

### School Administration

The organization of schools into lock-step grades, into careful segregation according to subject matter, into levels of ability, and into carefully controlled units of work is not necessarily conducive to the development of the serious citizen who desires the best solutions to the problems of society. There are already important administrative changes developing, and it is clear that they must continue. The full impact of the kind of social studies program discussed here can only be revealed given a much more creative approach to educational administration than is currently the case.

This leads to the further problem of the development of specific techniques of administration for the handling of the inquiry methods discussed in this dissertation. The need for more radical time-



tabling which enables the development of personal timetables that permit adjustments in timetables to allow the pursuit of some dimension of a social problem that involves research out of the school during the school hours.

Indeed, the concept of the school as a resource centre and the teacher as a consultant with particular tasks to perform should be pursued further. But what is essential is that educational theory having arrived at its present place should not fall back into its old rut because insufficiently strenuous efforts are made to put the theories into practice.

#### Concluding Remarks

The difficulty with this work has been the attempt to cover knowledge from the conceptual to the practical level; to ascertain how facts are treated in classroom situations and then to consider the conceptual position on facts in order to relate the two. These difficulties have been compounded in an effort to cover





not only facts, but also reasoning and respecting others. However, the work was pursued in order to reveal the highly integrated nature of the three problems discussed. At the conceptual level, it is not too difficult to separate one issue from another and then to work on that issue in isolation. In the classroom this is impossible because, and this has been a main thrust of this work, facts are involved with reasoning and reasoning is involved with respecting others. Any separation is done for some limited purpose and the classroom teacher who fails to see this distorts the process of learning. Hence, it was felt that regardless of the difficulties, it was decided to treat the three dimensions that seem to be so important.

There is no doubt that the technical philosopher will demand greater detail and thoroughness; the methodologist will demand more empirical data; and the teacher will demand more practical advice. While recognizing these shortcomings, it is hoped that the teacher's knowledge will have been extended into the methodological and conceptual level; that the methodologist will have obtained some new perspectives on



his subject matter; and, finally, it is hoped that the philosopher will have been introduced to the difficulties faced by those involved in the practical task of teaching high school students.



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7. See Appendix II.
8. Supra., pp. 85-96.
9. Supra., pp. 121-124.
10. Supra., pp. 86-92.
11. See Appendix I.
12. Supra., pp. 135-139.
13. There is a strong tendency apparent in the social studies to separate thinking into critical thinking and inquiry. "Critical thinking" refers to the kind of emphasis which was apparent in the Social Studies 30 program. "Inquiry" refers to the use of evidence, the consideration of hypotheses and so on. This seems to be a useful distinction to make, but it is by no means universally accepted.
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## APPENDIX A



## STATEMENT OF AIMS

Bulletin I asks the question, "What are the aims we accept as worthy goals for social growth?" The answers are fully quoted below:

(1) The democratic society maintains at all times and at all costs a respect for the individual. The individual is the basic unit of society and a respect for his personality is the basic premise for lasting social structure.

"Respect for personality is the cornerstone. The conviction here is that the sheer fact of being human makes all men equal in a very important sense....What is meant by this is perhaps best made clear by contrasting personal with other types. In a sense a workman respects his tools and materials, but he unhesitatingly manipulates them in sole accordance with his personal purposes. When we work with other human beings, however, we recognize that they have purposes as well as we. To disregard their purposes, to use them as tools, is to deny their equality, to show disrespect for personality, to flout the brotherhood of men."

Implicit in our regard for the individual is a recognition of his capacity for growth, and a sense of responsibility to see that he is given a fair chance to develop and express such potentialities.

(2) The democratic society maintains faith in human intelligence. This belief is closely related to the respect for the potentialities of the individual. Certainly all men are not endowed with equal mental capacities, but we do maintain that normally men are capable of distinguishing good from evil, wisdom from folly, virtue from vice. Furthermore, normal men recognize that the good, the wise and the virtuous will in the long run promote general welfare. Unless negatively conditioned by miseducation or some other circumstances most people will support these efforts directed towards social improvements. Identifying individual welfare with general progress provides





a double motive for genuine social concern. Some may contend that in a civilization as complex as ours the average citizen cannot see all the implications nor understand all the technicalities of social change. This argument proceeds to support the idea of government by "experts" or specialists. Insistence upon the sovereignty of the electorate should not necessarily detract from the pivotal position of good leaders. Those who accept the role of leadership must be sensitive to the needs and desires of the people they represent, and must be ready to advise wisely and to interpret accurately the mandate entrusted to their hands. But the nature of that mandate must originate in the group thinking of those common men who comprise the main body of our social order.

(3) The democratic society relies on an appeal to reason. Democracy deplures the use of force and violence. Frictions are inevitable, but those differences can be settled by conference, arbitration, and co-operation if the spirit of friendly settlement exists. There is much truth in the Chinese proverb that "He who strikes the first blow admits he has the weaker case." If violence and force are condoned the right of minorities and the processes of individual justice are in jeopardy. Violence, whatever its motives, makes for spiritual impoverishment and co-operation cannot exist side by side with coercion and force. The appeal to reason must go beyond lip service and find expression in the daily routine of living together as experienced by every law-abiding citizen. It is true that every society must maintain the means of internal discipline and self-protection, but those means are not measured in terms of police personnel and standing armies. The best protection is a will for peace and a determination in every citizen to abide by what Kant called the "moral law". With that will and determination a society can muster the physical means of protection both internal and external without fear of a Frankenstein that will rob them of their freedom.

(4) The democratic society expects of every citizen reciprocal responsibilities. Some define democracy as rights; others think of it as duties. Actually both are essential. The opportunities each individual enjoys are not of his making. They



are awarded him by the collective action of his society. In accepting them he, in reality, accepts an indebtedness to his fellow citizens at large. To discharge that obligation becomes one of the most solemn contracts, for upon its collective fulfillment depends the general welfare of the future. "No man can be indifferent, no man can live a life apart from the rest, no man can enjoy the privileges of education and thereafter with a clear conscience break his contract with society. To respect that contract is to be mature, to strengthen it is to be a good citizen, to do more than your share under it is to be noble."

(5) The democratic society expects its members to place general welfare ahead of individual welfare and attempts in return to guarantee justice to all members. This is a corollary to the sense of responsibility mentioned above. Ideally every person in a society should be capable of maintaining his own comforts and welfare and have some surplus means and energies to contribute to collective projects and activities. Actually there are always those who for a variety of reasons cannot maintain themselves if left to their own devices. To these less fortunate democracy offers assistance. Such help is sometimes labelled "State" aid. We hear a good deal about "State" welfare, "State" purposes, even "State" worship. It should be remembered that the State, like any other social institution, has no reality apart from the people who comprise it. Remove the citizens and all social institutions are reduced to a fictitious status. General welfare is, therefore, not state welfare in any real and lasting sense. It is actually the welfare of the fellow men of our community and as such is the concern of true humanitarianism. Democracy does not seek to increase the glory and welfare of the state. Too often "the glory and welfare of the state" actually consists of the glory and welfare of a privileged few. Instead it aims to open opportunities for participation in every department of life to all members of the group. The extent of those opportunities is a criterion of the democratic state and the extent of his participation is a criterion of the democratic citizen.



(6) The democratic society defends the civil liberties of all men, particularly those of minority groups. Certain liberties are so casually accepted in our culture that we may be inclined to overlook their full significance and the price previous generations have paid in establishing them. Freedom of speech, religious liberty, impartial justice and trial by jury, access to information, freedom of choice in vocational and home life are all taken for granted by Canadians. To maintain those rights for the bulk of Canadians today appears easy, but the important thing is our willingness to extend these rights in full measure to minority groups. To deprive any man or group of men of the full freedom to vote, to hold property, to speak freely is a most serious step. It not only establishes personal injustice and discrimination, but it sets the pattern by which those rights can be lost to the Canadian people at large.

Every liberty adds a responsibility. The right to vote implies an intelligent exercise of the franchise; freedom of worship implies a respect for all faiths; freedom of speech implies a responsibility for truth and fairness in public utterance. With a deep regard for the preservation of civil liberties there must also be maintained an equally sincere devotion to the concomitant obligations of good citizenship.

(7) Finally, the democratic society looks with optimism to the future. This optimism is not the happy-go-lucky nor the devil-may-care attitude of irresponsibility. It does not arise from any myopic illusion that all men work for ends that are admirable. It is not founded on any doctrine of infallibility of progress for mankind. It does not flourish through ignorance of the powerful and subtle forces that operate to contradict all that democracy upholds. It is not deceived by any mirage of millennial peace close at hand. Its firm foundation is an unwavering conviction that we have chosen a path of progress and that such a choice adds strength to our cause. In defending that optimism we reject completely the claim that the optimist is the curse of the western culture, that the fight against totalitarianism forces us to lay aside all





truly civilizing attitudes, that the optimist glibly refuses to recognize the clouds and must necessarily, like the sundial, fail to tell time on stormy days. (21). No human being can live in the full sense of the word without self-respect. No human being can contribute his share to community living without a measure of self-reliance. No man gives his best when he lacks self-confidence. All the activities of life in which we are engaged are based on the hope of progress in days to come. Without that hope the very process of life itself becomes a bauble of momentary excitement. Like Paul of old we run the good race and fight the good fight not in the hope of avoiding death but with the faith that, for this world and beyond, we have chosen values that are of lasting worth.

These aims fall into two categories: (a) the development in the student of a sense of respect for his fellow man, and (b) to enable the student to use reason to solve social problems. Thus, aims #1, #4, #5 and #6 can be subsumed under category (a); aims #2 and #3 can be subsumed under category (b).

It is not argued that the seven aims are merely repetitive statements. This is not the case. What is obvious is that respect for one's fellow man (as an individual or as a group) is basic to category (a) and that the use of reason to solve social problems is basic to category (b).

Aim #7 is not included in either category because it appears that the kind of optimism discussed in that statement of aim is fundamental to the whole process of developing respect for one's fellow man as well as for using reason to solve social problems. After all, teachers and students operate on the assumption that what one learns in the present will be useful in the future and that one can be hopeful that the conditions of life will improve. The seventh aim also adds a useful cautionary note with regard to the nature of the optimism advocated.\*

\* Department of Education Bulletin I (Edmonton: Province of Alberta, 1949), pp. 13-16.





## APPENDIX B



STATEMENT CONCERNING SOCIAL STUDIES 30

September 1965

Developments since 1955 in areas related to the subject matter of Social Studies 30 should be given due consideration in the course during 1965-66. Valuable information is available in a Supplement to the textbook which is available at the School Book Branch for twenty cents; all students should have a copy of this booklet to accompany the textbook. This will appear to expand the requirements of the course. However, it is suggested that the emphasis may be lessened on certain topics in order to provide for the expansion of other topics and the introduction of new material. The following outline indicates topics where some revision is required.

UNIT I. The Influence of Geography on  
the Development of Canada

The material listed below might augment the information indicated in the textbook, CANADA IN THE MODERN WORLD, and the SUPPLEMENT to be used with the textbook.

- A. Page 5. Canada is now regarded as the second largest country in the world, exceeded in size only by the U.S.S.R.

U.S.S.R. - 8,598,678 sq. mi.  
Canada - 3,845,774 sq. mi.  
Communist China - 3,768,726 sq. mi.  
U.S.A. - 3,608,789 sq. mi.  
(Encyclopaedia Britannica)

- B. Page 12. Utility of each area might be indicated.
- C. Page 27. Air transportation might be indicated.
- D. Page 28. Inuvik, the Northern Post.

When foundations of buildings constructed on



Permafrost began to sink, the federal government decided to transfer its northern service and administrative center, Aklavik, to more solid ground. The original proposal to move buildings and homes proved costly, and thus Aklavik was totally abandoned, and at Inuvik, not far away, a new town was built complete with its R.C.M.P. post, northern service and administrative offices, schools, hospital and weather and radio stations.

E. Page 31. The Trans-Canada Highway

By the end of World War II with the increase in long-distance vehicle traffic, a highway from coast to coast became an urgent requirement. Federal-provincial conferences resulted, in 1949, in the Trans-Canada Highway Act setting out a plan for a highway to follow the shortest and best route through each province. The highway, opening this year, has two paved lanes each 22 feet in width. It has been built to the following specifications: Shoulders having a minimum of five feet in width, gradients with a maximum of 6% and curvatures a maximum of 6 degrees.

The construction of the 4,876 mile highway stretching from St. John's, Newfoundland to Victoria, British Columbia, has been difficult because of geographical obstacles such as rock, muskeg and heavy forest. The ninety miles between Golden and Revelstoke has provided the engineers with problems necessitating the development of techniques to cope with snow and rock slides.

Like the earlier construction of pipe lines and the Trans-Canada railways this longest paved highway in the world is another example of determination to promote national unity in spite of high costs and geographic obstacles.

F. Pages 65 - 66. A New Railway to the Last Frontier

A recent example of the "roads to resources" into the third frontier region of Canada is the railway line now under construction which parallels the Mackenzie River to Hay River with a proposed extension to Pine Point. This line will provide opportunity to tap the zinc and lead deposits



at Pine Point. The completion of this railway as extensions of the C.N.R. and N.A.R. will indicate the first thrust by rail into the Northwest Territories.

Consideration of transportation routes might include the terminals of C.N.R., C.P.R., N.A.R., P.G.E. and the Q.N.S. & L. Railways. As well as the Trans-Canada Highway, the Alaska Highway and the Hay River-Yellowknife Highway should be noted. Inter-continental air routes and the petroleum and natural gas pipe lines should also be mentioned.

## UNIT II. Canada and International Trade

Attention to Recent developments might include:

### A. Economic trade policies of

1. Liberals - M. King (1945 - 1948)  
                  - L. St. Laurent (1948 - 1956)
2. Conservatives - Diefenbaker (1957 - 1958)  
                                      (1958 - 1962)

### B. Canada's place in world trade. Chapter Vi -

1. References such as the current edition of the Canada Yearbook would provide revised figures for the tables used in pp.
2. Information on recent traderelationships should supplement that of pp.

### C. Post War Problems of Canadian Foreign Trade (World War II)

#### 1. Conversion or Change

- (a) From wartime to peacetime production, e.g., jeeps to automobiles.
- (b) From primary to much secondary industry: during World War II Canada became an important manufacturing nation including products of the machine tool industry.





- (c) From old to some new markets. Britain and the rest of Europe devalued currencies thereby cutting imports from Canada; Canada turned (in part only) to Latin America and Asia.
    - i) Marshall Aid and NATO temporarily helped Britain and Europe to obtain Canadian goods.
    - ii) The Colombo Plan introduced Canadian goods to new markets in Asia.
  - 2. New Techniques in buying developed during World War II
    - (a) Bulk buying by governments. E.g., the British government brought Canadian wheat and sold it to British millers.
    - (b) War shortages were met by rationing, price control, ceiling prices, floor prices, permits and priorities. Some of this remained.
  - 3. Canada sought to become more self-sufficient, i.e., to achieve a more balanced economy.
    - (a) For the sake of national defence. During the war we were cut off from British woollens and West Indies sugar; after the war we sought to produce both at home. Cut off from Asian rubber we produced it synthetically and continued to do so after the war.
    - (b) For protection against depression. Primary production is always hit more heavily than secondary production.
- N.B. While more of our exports consist of secondary and semi-fabricated goods there are continuing difficulties to self-sufficiency in Canada.
- i) Our cool, temperate climate will always result in deficiency of sub-tropical and tropical goods.
  - ii) Until we have a larger population



the small home market will limit the number of manufactured articles which can be mass produced, and mass production is the only economic technique.

D. Canada's Trading Associates Compared.

(There are six trading areas for Canada: U.S.A., U.K., Continental Europe, the Commonwealth and Ireland, Latin America and all others.)

E. Effect on Canada of European Economic Community.

1. At the present time.
2. (To members of the Commonwealth). If Britain joins the Common Market with or without trade concessions by the E.E.C.

UNIT III. The Search for Security in the Twentieth Century

The suggestions for treatment of Unit III are to bring the textual material up to date and should to some extent direct the study of current events considered during the course.

Though space-age implications and other national and international relationships such as new economic pressures have been changing, nevertheless the basic problems, tensions, and proposed solutions still correspond to the textual content. Current events must be considered as outcomes of historical events referred to in the course. Mere memorization of isolated items is unsatisfactory and has little meaning except in a historical content that reflects an understanding of background. Though time is limited, current events must receive attention and their selection should show their historical significance and relevance to important concepts of some unit of the course.

A. The following sub-sections of the unit (pp. 132-267) should be given less intensive teaching in order to have more time for later developments:

1. Chapter VI - The spread of western civilization (pp. 133-135)
  - New products (pp. 135-137)
  - The international aspect (pp. 141-142)



2. Chapter IX - Preliminaries of peace (minor details) (pp. 156-158)
  - Minorities (minor details) (pp. 161-162)
  - Mandates (classes and minor examples) (pp. 162-163)
3. Chapter X - Security and disarmament details (the nine-power and the five-power treaties; London Treaty) (pp. 171-175)
  - Nationalism and self-determination (teach only the significant lessons with examples) (pp. 175-176)
4. Chapter XI - The isolation party of the United States (omit all but the interpretation and application of the Monroe Doctrine and the retreat from isolation) (pp. 184-188)
5. Chapter XV - World peace is threatened in many areas (the areas listed should be reviewed and revised to bring the students up to date on the most important places of tension) (pp. 257-259)

B. Sections or topics that should be stressed:

1. The rise of socialism (especially Marxism) (p. 137)
2. The balance of power (pp. 144-147)
3. The settlement of Europe (especially in relation to the causes of World War II) (pp. 158-161)
4. The League of Nations (basic principles) (pp. 167-169)
5. Soviet Communism (program and ideology) (pp. 195-200)
6. Aggression by the totalitarian states, Japan, Italy, Nazi Germany; Munich Pact (pp. 201-212)
7. World War II. Similarity of causes to those of World War I. Only most significant phases (pp. 212-219) Results.
8. The United Nations - structure, aims, charter, achievements, problems; similarities and contrasts as compared with the League (pp. 260-265)
9. The Cold War (causes, course, participants) (pp. 223-230, 238-239)



10. The peace treaties after World War II (pp. 235-238)
11. Pacts and alliances associated with the Cold War (especially the Cominform and the Russo-Chinese Alliance; and also the Western Union, NATO, the Nine-Power Treaty; SEATO: and the non-military Colombo Plan) (pp. 240-252)
12. Armaments and disarmaments (including nuclear) (pp. 252-254)

C. NOTE: The material for the following may be found in WORLD PROBLEMS by Carter; W.J. Gage Limited, reviewed in the 1962 May Newsletter from the Department of Education. Also useful would be World Affairs magazines since 1956; the 1962 edition of MAKING OF TODAY'S WORLD by Hughes, Pullen; Allyn and Bacon.

## 1. Developments in the United Nations

- (a) Increase in membership
- (b) Shifting of influence by increased membership
- (c) The office of Secretary General and his work
- (d) Work of the United Nations in the Congo
- (e) Problems of the United Nations, e.g., financial support.

## 2. Developments in the Communist Camp

- (a) Advance of Communism in Southeast Asia, Tibet, Latin America, Africa
- (b) Changes in the Soviet Union: repudiation of Stalinism; liberalization and lessening of controls; conflicts within the Kremlin; participation in United Nations; economic aid to underdeveloped countries
- (c) Ideological differences between the Soviet Union and Red China
- (d) Control of the satellite states: the Hungarian revolt (1956); concession to Poland; riots in East Germany; the flood of refugees and the iron curtain;







conflicting issues over Albania;  
relations with Yugoslavia.

3. Developments in the Western and Democratic World

- (a) Strengthening of military alliances - NATO, SEATO, CENTO
- (b) The Austrian Peace Treaty (1955) and its implications
- (c) The economic recovery of Western Europe. The Schuman Plan (ECSC); Euratom; the European Common Market (ECC): Franco-German rapprochement and its significance; European trade blocks.

4. New Developments in the Cold War

- (a) The "Geneva spirit" and the later conferences; the disarmament conferences
- (b) The problem of German unification
- (c) The U-2 incident and the problem of inspection
- (d) The Berlin crises: western forces in Berlin; a treaty for East Germany
- (e) The testing of nuclear devices

5. A Third Force in the Cold War

- (a) The emerging nations of Africa and Asia
- (b) The Arab states of the Middle East and North Africa; Nasser
- (c) The Suez dispute and its outcome
- (d) India's policy of neutralism or non-alignment
- (e) Race conflict in Africa: its significance and danger
- (f) Indonesia and the dispute over West New Guinea

6. Unrest in Latin America

- (a) The problem of Communism in Cuba; expulsion from O.A.S.
- (b) The disorders of Argentine, Brazil, Venezuela, Dominican Republic



7. The Exploration of Space. Achievements of  
U.S.S.R., U.S.A.

UNIT IV. Nationalism and the Modern World

Points of view and general conclusions have not changed but attention might be given to such recent developments as:

A. Commonwealth Problems

- Separatism as an extension of the items on Sectionalism (p. 342)
- Recent additions to the Commonwealth
- Withdrawals - South Africa
- Unstable conditions in other areas

B. Recent Expressions of Nationalism

- (a) Decline of colonialism - Brief references to:
  - overseas Netherlands Empire
  - the change from the French Union to the French Community under the Fifth Republic
  - in various parts of Africa, e.g., the Congo
- (b) Implications of changes in maps of Asia and Africa
- (c) Current events pertaining to nationalism suffer from lack of background knowledge concerning Indian, Belgian, Dutch, Portuguese, French or Spanish empires.

UNIT V. The Canadian Citizen and His Government

The suggestions are not intended to replace the items of the Guide but to indicate some features of stress and supplementary information.

- A. More stress on the meaning and importance of local self-government and less emphasis on outside influences and their historical development other than as a basis of authority.
- B. Types of local self-government in Alberta, including counties with a brief comparison to that of



other provinces. Attention might include:

- Metropolitan areas
- City Act of Alberta
- The ward system
- Systems of voting - simple plurality
  - single transferable vote
  - proportional representation

c. Problems of Local Self-Government

- powers and functions of autonomous bodies within local government systems
- provincial supervision of these
- proportions or percentages of averages of sources of revenue and expenditure



## APPENDIX C





Appendix C is a copy of the Social Studies 30 Departmental examination for the year 1967. The format of the paper is retained and the answers to the questions are inserted. These answers are taken from the official answer sheet. Wherever possible the source of the answer is cited in terms of the official text, an atlas, World Affairs, etc.

The questions have been analyzed according to the Typology discussed in Chapter II. The discussions follow the groupings that are established by the paper itself.



HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION

EXAMINATION BOARD

DEPARTMENTAL EXAMINATIONS, 1966

SOCIAL STUDIES 30

Time--3 hours.

DO NOT SPEND TOO MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE QUESTION.  
READ THE QUESTIONS CAREFULLY.

Total Possible Mark--200.

All your work must be done in this booklet.

Answers to questions 2-6, 14-20, 33-38, 50-80, 91-95, 100-104, 111-115, 116-121 are to be machine scored. You are to record your answers on the separate ANSWER SHEET which will be provided. Each question has three or more suggested answers, one of which is better than the others. Select the best answer and record it on the separate sheet, as shown in the example below.

EXAMPLE

Compared with the area of the United States and its possessions, the area of the Soviet Union is roughly

A. six times as large	A	<u>B</u>	C	D
B. Twice as large				
C. about the same				
D. half as large				

You are to use an ordinary HB pencil to mark your answers on the answer sheet. Make certain your answer marks are heavy and black and that they do not extend beyond the guide lines. If you change your mind about an answer, be sure to erase your first mark completely. There should be only one answer marked for each question. Be sure there are no stray pencil marks on your answer sheet.



Place your answer sheet BEHIND the test booklet and INSERT BOTH IN THE SAME ANSWER ENVELOPE IN such a way that the UPPER LEFT HAND CORNER OF THE BOOKLET (candidate's number) shows through the SLASHED CORNER of the answer envelope.

BE SURE TO SEAL THE ENVELOPE.



Unit 1  
THE ROLE OF GEOGRAPHY IN THE  
DEVELOPMENT OF CANADA

QUESTION #1

Examine the map on the opposite page and answer the following questions-

(a) Each of the following statements refers to a place or area which is marked on the map with a capital letter. Identify each place or area by name and, in the right column, list the letter which marks its map location.

DESCRIPTION	Name	Location	Reference to Answer
Example: The largest city in Canada	Montreal	K	School Atlas
The leading oil field in Canada between 1914 and 1945	Turner Valley	D	or
A navigable river in Western Canada	Mackenzie	C	<u>Canada in the Modern World,</u> Chapters I and II
An ice-free port	Halifax	M	
The principal steel-manufacturing center in Canada	Hamilton	J	
A fertile plain which was once a lake during the Ice Age	Red River Valley	Manitoba Lowlands	H
A fruit-growing region in Western Canada	Okanagan	A	
Canada's chief nickel-mining centre	Sudbury	I	
Southern terminus of the Alaska Highway	Dawson Creek	B	
An area famed for its potatoes	Prince Edward Island	L	





(b) Identify the physiographic and climatic regions in which each of the circled numbers are placed.

	PHYSIOGRAPHIC REGION	CLIMATIC REGION
Example:	2 High Plains	Cool temperate interior
	1 Coast Range	West coast Maine
	3 Interior lowlands	Cool temperate east coast
	4 Canadian Shield	Sub Arctic

### Comments on Question I

The answer to each part of this question depends upon the ability to recall map locations. Type I questions which pose no obvious problems.

### Questions #2 - 12 (inclusive)

Official answers to multiple choice questions are placed beside each question.

In questions 2 to 6, select the BEST answer from the four choices which are listed and indicate your selection on the separate ANSWER SHEET which is provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions are worth 1 mark each.

Values		Official Answer	Reference to answer
2. What product is imported into Kitimat?	A. Aluminum B. Coal C. Bauxite D. Electricity	C	pp. 41-2
3. In which part of Canada does the Appalachian mountain system reach its northern extremity?	A. Gaspe Peninsula B. Newfoundland C. Cape Breton Island D. Laurentian Shield	B	p. 8
4. Why is the Canadian Arctic unlikely to support a large population?	A. Too few cities B. Too little potential for agriculture C. Too few mineral resources D. Too few harbours	B	p. 154 p. 22



Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
	5. In which province was oil first discovered in Canada?	A. Alberta B. Saskatchewan C. Nova Scotia D. Ontario	D p. 53
	6. What is the most serious disadvantage of Mercator's projection?	A. Does not show direction B. Asia appears east of Canada C. Distortion of the land masses in the higher lattitudes D. Antarctica occupies the full width of the map	C p. 57
1	7. Why would it be wrong to say that Canada is bounded on all sides by natural features?		
	Because lines of latitude and longtitude also form part of Canada's boundaries.		pp. 10-11
1	8. Why are winter temperatures lower on the Atlantic coast of Canada than on the Pacific coast?		
	Because winds (and weather systems) move predominantly from the cold land rather than the warmer sea (Labrador current, East Coast; Japanese current, West coast.)		p. 12 pp. 14-15
2	9. Give TWO reasons why podzols are less favourable for agriculture than prairie soils.		
	i. They are acid soils leached of lime. Other minerals have also been leached from them. Leys humus is formed.		p. 15
	ii. Drainage is frequently poor giving rise to peat and wet clays.		
	(any two answers)		
2	10. Give TWO reasons why Alberta coal is not transported to the manufacturing centres of Ontario.		



Values

Reference  
to Answer

i. Insufficient transportation; high p. 51  
cost of transportation; little anthracite  
coal is found in Alberta and this is in  
demand in the East; abundant hydro-electric  
power in St. Lawrence lowland; too expensive  
to mine in Alberta.

ii. (any two answers)

- 1 11. Why did the development of new strains of  
wheat, such as Marquis, increase wheat  
production in Western Ontario?

It permitted the extension of wheat growing p. 39  
into more northerly regions.

- 1 12. The population of Canada is concen-  
trated along the southern boundary; this  
pattern is changing. Give ONE reason why?

Expansion of agricultural regions or tran-  
sportation to northern areas of new resources.

Comments on Questions #2 - 12

Except for those questions which are discussed below,  
there appears to be no obvious problem with these Type I  
questions.

Question #5 which asks, "Why is the Canadian Arctic  
unlikely to support a large population?" appears to  
require an overly superficial answer (too little potential  
for agriculture). See pp. of this study.

Question #12 could not be located in any of the usual  
references. The question, however, appears to present  
numerous difficulties. It states the claim, "The popula-  
tion of Canada is concentrated along the southern boundary;"  
which is true. It then makes another claim, "this pattern  
is changing," and the student is asked to give one reason  
why this should be the case. The problem with this question  
is that although the population in northern Canada may  
be increasing, the population along the southern border



is also increasing. The result is that the pattern of population is probably not changing very much. It should also be noted that there has been a general trend to urban living and that most of the urban centers of Canada are near the southern border. Under the circumstances it appears that the question can hardly be answered in a simple factual fashion since various dimensions of the problem need to be discussed.





UNIT II

INTERNATIONAL TRADE

Canadian Exports by Main Commodities  
1954 and 1960-63  
(in millions of dollars)

CLASS	COMMODITY	1954	1960	1961	1962	1963
A. Farm and Fish Products	Wheat and Wheat flour	463	473	723	659	849
	Barley, oats, rye	131	61	58	46	54
	Other farm and fish products	390	484	518	559	561
	Totals	984	1018	1299	1264	1464
	(Farm and Fish Products)					
B. Forest Products	Softwood lumber	311	323	335	371	427
	Wood pulp	271	325	347	370	405
	Newsprint	636	758	761	753	760
	Other forest products	146	181	180	207	232
	Totals	1365	1587	1623	1701	1824
	(Forest Products)					
C. Minerals and Mineral Products	Iron ore	40	155	143	221	271
	Primary Iron & steel	44	161	157	162	197
	Aluminum & Products	185	269	252	294	316
	Copper, nickel and products	317	473	530	523	530
	Lead, zinc and products	90	990	86	87	83
	Crude petroleum & natural gas	6	112	196	305	310
	Uranium ores & concentrates	8	264	193	166	138
	Other metals & minerals	218	289	301	306	325
	Totals	917	1814	1858	2063	1169
	(Minerals & Mineral Products)					



CLASS	COMMODITY	1954	1960	1961	1962	1963
D. Chemicals and Fertilizers.....		153	238	251	248	268
E. Other Manufactures and Miscellaneous.....		441	600	724	902	1073
F. Exports of Foreign Produce.....		65	129	140	169	182
	Totals - all exports	3936	5387	5895	6348	6980



Values

Reference  
to Answer

13. Answer the following questions by careful reference to the TABLE

(a) What was Canada's most valuable export commodity in 1962?

Newsprint

(b) What mineral commodity showed the greatest increase in export value between 1954 and 1963?

crude petroleum and natural gas

(c) What TWO commodities declined in export value between 1954 and 1963?

- (1) Barley, oats and rye
- (2) lead, zinc and products

(d) Describe the trend in uranium exports since 1954.

Rapid increase 1954 - 60 followed  
by steady decrease

(e) In 1954, iron contributed about one percent of Canada's total export value. What was its percentage relationship to total export values in 1963?

3.9%

(f) Name ONE forest commodity which has increased in export value every year since 1960.

softwood lumber or wood pulp

(g) What change occurred in the class ranking of total forest products between 1954 and 1960?

Forest products dropped from first to second place



Values

Reference  
to Answer

(h) What was the difference in the export value of crude petroleum and natural gas between 1962 and 1963?

5 million

(i) What difference has there been in the export trends of wheat and wheat flour since 1954?

Wheat exports were little changed from 1954 to 1960, then showed a big increase.

Comments on Questions #13

This question fits into Bloom's Taxonomy and is categorized thereas. There appears to be no obvious problems with this question and is categorized in the classification being used in this study as Type III.

Questions #13 - #20 (inclusive)

In questions 14 to 20 inclusive, match each definition or description in COLUMN I with the appropriate term from COLUMN II. Record your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET which is provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. Each question is worth 1 mark.

COLUMN I (Definition or description)	COLUMN II (term)	ANSWERS
14. Selling of excess products on foreign markets at less than production cost	A. reciprocity	H
15. The use of goods and services	B. free trade	E





Values		Reference to Answer
COLUMN I (Definition or description)	COLUMN II (term)	ANSWERS
16. The belief that colonies exist to supply their mother countries with raw materials	C. protectionism	D
17. An agreement for the free exchange of certain goods between two countries	D. mercantile system	A
18. An agreement which fixed prices and quotas for all countries exporting a certain commodity	E. consumption F. balance of trade	I
19. The imposition of tariffs and other restrictive measures on imports	G. devaluation	C
20. Lowering the exchange rate of the currency of a particular country	H. dumping I. International Wheat Agreement	G

Comments on Questions #14 - #20

These are all unproblematical Type I questions of the definiens-definiendum type. The source of all these questions is Chapter V of Canada in the Modern World. As these questions were all matters of recognizing the meaning of terms, and as both term and meaning were given, it was



considered unnecessary to locate the actual definition in the textbook. There can be no doubt that the questions do test recognition, a simplification of recall questions, and therefore categorized as Type I.

Questions #21 - #26 (inclusive)

Values		Reference to Answer
	21. Give TWO reasons why nations engage in international trade.	
2	i. National insufficiency in certain products; surplus production of certain commodities; cost differential ii. between domestic and foreign production; to meet consumer demands for specialized products.	p. 73
1	22. What principle did the Canadian Government follow in its trade policies after the world depression of the mid-1850's?	
	Raised tariffs to protect home industries	p. 92
1	23. Show how invisible exports affect Canada's trade balance.	
	Canadian tourists spend more than do visitors to Canada. Outward movement of interest on capital investment.	p. 75
2	24. Why was Canada forced to seek new export markets after World War II. Give TWO reasons.	
	i. Britain reduced imports from Canada; less trade with Commonwealth countries that developed industries during the war; ii. development of secondary industries which required new markets.	p. 107-8



Values		Reference to Answer
1	25. What recent trade agreements were a major departure from a policy established by Canada in the late 1940's?	
	Wheat sales to Communist countries, violation of GATT by U.S.-Canada trade agreement.	p. 125
1	26. What geographical factor acts as an incentive to Canadian imports from Latin America?	
	Source of tropical and sub-tropical products; source of bauxite for aluminum industry, cheap transportation; proximity.	p. 128

#### Comments on Questions #21 - #26

These questions are very open ended. Provided allowances are made for this in the marking of the answers, there are no apparent problems. These questions are all Type I.

### UNIT III

#### The International Scene

#### Questions #27 - #32 (inclusive)

Values		Reference to Answer
1	27. What role did Marx foresee for the proletariat in the elimination of the system of private ownership?	
	Workers would rise in revolt against their exploited position and overthrow private ownership. Dictatorship of proletariat; abolition of class distinction; full control by proletariat of means of production and exchange.	p. 139



Values		Reference to Answer
1	28. What was the purpose of Bismark's Reinsurance Treaty, 1887?	
	Russia had withdrawn her support from the League of the Three Emperors; Germany was prepared to recognize Russia's claims to the Balkans and in return to agree to mutual neutrality in case of a defensive war; isolate France.	p. 147
1	29. Why did Turkey join the Central Powers in World War I?	
	Desire for the railway development to Bagdad; to protect the Straits from Russia.	p. 149
1	30. In what way did the Treaty of Versailles, 1919, violate Wilson's Fourteen Points?	
	Conduct mostly in secret; open diplomacy not practised; representatives of defeated powers not present; self-determination violated; reduction of armaments.	p. 160
1	31. The Allies, by a secret treaty in 1915, promised Constantinople and the Straits to Russia. The Allies won the war, but Russia did not receive the promised territories. Why?	
	Russia had signed a separate peace treaty with Germany in 1918, prior to close of World War I. This was contrary to agreements made in 1914 by Britain, France and Russia, that	p. 157





Values

Reference  
to Answer

Allies would not sign a separate treaty with Germany. Bolsheviks abrogated treaty of 1915 when they came to power in Russia. Russia had withdrawn from war. Russian Communism was distasteful.

- 4      32. Give a reason for each of the following provisions of the Treaty of Versailles.

(a) France was granted ownership of the coal in the Saar Basin for fifteen years.

As compensation to France for war damage

p. 161

(b) Danzig was made a free city under the League of Nations.

Poland needed outlet to sea

p. 161 &  
160

(c) The inclusion of the war guilt clause.

To justify for reparation claims

p. 163

(d) Alsace-Lorraine was made a part of France.

Restoration of an area lost from France in 1871.

p. 160

Comments on Questions #27 - #32

These questions accentuate the problems that appear in the last group of questions to such an extent that it is doubtful if all experts would agree on the answers provided by the text book and demanded by the question.



Under the circumstances it appears that these answers need to be justified rather than merely stated. However, as they stand, they are Type I questions since the answers demanded are in the text book. The text book answers, however, appear to be very limited.

Questions #33 - #38 (inclusive)

In questions 33 to 38 inclusive, choose the BEST answer and indicate your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	33. The great increase in industrialization towards the end of the nineteenth century led to		
	A. greater intervention by governments in the control of industry	A	p. 138
	B. withdrawal of governments from the control of industry		
	C. development of totalitarian governments		
	D. greater ease and wealth of most people.		
1	34. The chief reason for establishment of the Triple Entente, 1907, was		
	A. military supremacy in Europe	D	p. 167
	B. expansion of trade		
	C. agreement between Russia and England		
	D. balance of power		



Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	35. The country whose neutrality was violated in World War I was		
	A. Holland	B	
	B. Belgium		
	C. Switzerland		
	D. Denmark		
1	36. Which of the following empires was split into nationalistic fragments in 1918?		
	A. Germany	C	p. 158
	B. Poland		
	C. Austria-Hungary		
	D. Russia		
1	37. Following the Peace Settlements of 1919, most of the former German islands in the Pacific, south of the equator, were mandated to		
	A. Japan	C	p. 162-3
	B. Britain		
	C. Australia		
	D. United States		



Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	38. Italy joined the Allies in 1915 in return for the promise of the following territory		
	A. Crete	D	p. 157
	B. Tunisia		
	C. Sardinia		
	D. Southern Tyrol		

Comments on Questions #33 - #38

These questions appear to be unproblematic except #33 and #34. Question #33 states, "The great increase in industrialization towards the end of the nineteenth century led to..." (the official answer is) "greater intervention by governments in the control of industry." However, it can be argued that greater industrialization also led to the "development of totalitarian governments" and it can certainly be argued that it led to the "greater ease and wealth of most people." It appears that the selection of the best answer from amongst these alternatives is a matter that needs justification.

Similarly the answer to question #34 seems to be overly simple. It appears that the distinction between "balance of power" and "military supremacy" is very subtle. Thus, for example, it can be asked was the Triple Entente really established to achieve a "balance of power?" Or was it really established to ensure the military supremacy of one group over the other? It appears that a complex question is being overly simplified. The answer selected needs to be justified. All the questions whether the answers needed justifying or not were Type I.





Questions #39 - #54 (inclusive)

Values		Reference to Answer
1	39. "If war was to be eliminated, there must be an end to the international anarchy in which war was bred." (text) What action was taken after 1919 to resolve this problem.	
	The creation of an international organization to prevent war.	p. 166-7
1	40. Explain how the signing of the Locarno Treaties of 1925 was considered to provide security.	
	It was believed that the treaties would remove tension between France and Germany. If French fears subsided, the need for armaments would diminish. Guarantee western boundary lines.	p. 173
1	41. How was the "abandoning of the gold standard" by Great Britain in 1931 a possible means of combating the effects of the depression?	
	It might reduce internal debt; lessen the cost of production; give British goods an advantage; decrease imports; help increase supply of money.	
1	42. Why did Fascism appeal to the national pride of the people of Italy?	
	Italy felt neglected after its contribution to the Allied victory in World War I.	p. 189



Values

Reference  
to Answer

Mussolini's demands for a strong foreign policy aroused an emotional response from people who were ready to believe the Fascists would raise Italy to greatness.

- 1 43. Why did Stalin advocate "socialism in a single state" for Russia in 1924?

Stalin felt that at the moment capitalism was too strong to be overthrown. Stalin felt that Russia must concentrate on the task of developing her own strength and prosperity while waiting further opportunity for advance.

p. 198

- 1 44. When Ethiopia was faced with a threat of war by Italy and appealed to the League of Nations for protection, the democratic Powers refused to give the necessary support. Why was support not forthcoming?

France was unwilling to jeopardize her new found friendship with Italy. Britain was anxious to find a compromise that would prevent a breach between Italy and the League--to appease Italy. Others were afraid of loss of trade; did not want risk of war; did not want to antagonize U.S.A.

p. 204

- 1 45. Why did Germany and Italy support General Franco in the Spanish revolt of 1936?

Both saw Franco, a Fascist, a useful instrument for strengthening their own positions. To use Spain as a

p. 206



Values

Reference  
to Answer

testing ground for new weapons and techniques Germany and Italy joined Franco as a part of their opposition to international commission.

- 2     46. Russia emerged from World War II in a different condition industrially, militarily and politically than she did from World War I. Contrast Russia's condition at the end of the two world wars from ONE of these points of view.

End of World War I: Russia was undeveloped: Russia was defeated; mutinous army and torn by civil war.

p. 228

End of World War II: Russia was militarily and industrially strong; Russia was victorious, firmly united under strong dictator.

- 1     47. Why was the United States in a position to assume leadership of the democracies at the end of World War II?

Highly industrialized, untouched by bombs, experienced army. No other democracy was capable of leadership. She was the most powerful country.

p. 230-1

- 3     48. Why was the framing of the Nine-Power Treaty a significant development in international relations from the point of view of

(a) Great Britain

Recognized the need for Germany in defence of Europe. Left her traditional policy of isolation from European affairs in time of peace and assumed closer ties with European democracies.

p. 249



Values	Reference to Answer
(b) France	
Paved the way for friendly association between France and Germany.	p. 248 & 249
(c) Germany	
Means of entering N.A.T.O. - re-arming	p. 248
1 49. Why does Communist China consider that Russia has made a betrayal of true socialism?	
China hold's to Marx doctrine of establishing communism by revolution. Also holds to Lenin's policy of spreading Communism by use of military.	<u>Current</u> <u>Affairs</u>

Questions 50 to 54 are machine-scored. Place your choice of answers on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

Read the following statements. On your answer sheet mark

- A--if the statement describes or applies  
to Italian Fascism
- B--if the statement describes or applies  
to German National Socialism
- C--if the statement describes or applies  
to Russian Communism
- D--if the statement does not apply to any  
of the above systems

Official  
Answer

50. Agricultural land was C  
organized into collective  
farms.





Values	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
51. Proposed to develop a large supnation composed of people of pur Aryan stock.	B	
52. The economy of the nation was based on what was called the "Corporate State".	A	
53. Passed an act to permit the use of collective bargaining and strikes.	D	
54. Anti-Semitism characterized the government from its beginning through to its end.	B	

Comments on Questions #29 - #54

The following questions appear to pose problems: #42, Why did Fascism appeal to the national pride of the people of Italy? The answers suggested are only partial since no reference is made to, for example, the great development of Italian industry; #33, When Ethiopia was faced with a threat of war by Italy and appealed to the League of Nations for protection, the democratic Powers refused to give the necessary support. Why was this support not forthcoming? The large number of alternative answers provided in the official answer sheet suggest the open-ended nature of this question. Answers stated in a very general fashion, could mean almost anything, and yet satisfy the question in the way suggested by the official answers. It appears that the particular answer stated needs to be justified. #45, Why did Germany and Italy support General Franco in the Spanish Revolt of 1936? Again it seems that the answers provided need to be justified because answers other than those suggested could be used. For example, the very general statement, "because they were all Fascists," appears to satisfy the answer, but the recommended answers appear to need more; question #49 asks "Why does Communist China consider that Russia has made a betrayal of true



socialism?" The answers recommended refer to the problems of international communism, whereas Chinese aspirations of a nationalistic kind are ignored. All the foregoing are Type I questions. Questions #50 - #54 are classified as Type II questions because although they clearly depend on the ability to recall text book statements, some reasoning ability is required to understand the answer.

Questions #55 - #65

"As the Nazi forces fell back, Russian troops swept forward over new areas (in Europe...paving the way for the extension and eventual Russian domination of these states." In the above map the lettered European countries depict Russian satellites behind the "Iron Curtain". Read the following statements, then choose the correct LETTERS to indicate the areas on the map to which each statement refers, and mark your choices with an ORDINARY HB PENCIL on the separate ANSWER SHEET. These questions carry a value of one mark each.

Values		Reference to Answer
1	55. The government of this country collaborated with Hitler during World War II, became a Russian satellite in 1947, and tried unsuccessfully to rebel in 1956.	Based on Current Affairs
1	56. The capital of this country was severely bombed twice during World War II, once by Germany in 1939 and once by Russia in 1945.	p. 212 & 216
1	57. During World War II, the "Iron Guard" in this country collaborated with Hitler and provided him with troops and oil in his Russian campaign.	p. 240
1	58. Government of the capital of this country is divided between Communist and Western Authorities.	p. 241



Values		Reference to Answer
1	59. A satellite which has successfully defied Russia's political ideology.	p. 241

Answer questions 60 to 65 on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

### Cause and Effect Relationships

Below are listed 6 pairs of facts or events. On your ANSWER SHEET record

- A--if you consider that the first statement was the cause of the second
- B--if you consider that they were the result of the same or of similar causes
- C--if you consider that the statements are unrelated

Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	60. Canada opposed Article X of the Covenant of the League of Nations. The U.S.A. refused to join the League of Nations.	B	p. 334
1	61. In 1935, a coalition of parties of the left in France formed the Popular Front. In 1936, French Premier Leon Blum's government dissolved the Fascist Leagues in France.	A	p. 183
1	62. The Lytton Report condemned Japanese aggression in Manchuria. Japan withdrew from the League of Nations in 1933.	A	p. 203



Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	63. Lenin took charge of Bolshevik policy in April, 1917. An ultimatum from Hitler forced the Chancellor of Austria to resign in 1938.	C	
1	64. In 1931, President Roosevelt of the United States instituted his "New Deal". At the end of World War II, the United States initiated the European Recovery Program.	C	
1	65. In 1947, Russia felt that closer control must be secured over her satellites. In 1947, Russia created the Cominform--a revival of the Comintern which had been disbanded in 1943.	A	p. 225

Comments on Questions #55 - #65

All these questions are Type II questions because, although they mainly depend upon the ability to recall, some complex instructions have to be carried out, prior to answering the question.

Questions #66 - #71 (inclusive)

In COLUMN I are descriptions of nations. In COLUMN II are names of the same nations. For questions 67 to 71 inclusive, choose the nation from COLUMN II that is referred to in COLUMN I and record the letter of your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET PROVIDED. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. Quotations are from your texts. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.







Values

Official  
Answer

COLUMN I

COLUMN II

- |   |   |   |  |
|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 66. "Called for the establishment of an international authority to control all uses of nuclear energy and to administer a programme of international inspection..." | D | A. Germany<br><br>B. Austria                           |
| 1 | 67. "Faced with serious economic problems and a dwindling colonial and Commonwealth trade, this country applied for membership in the Common Market."               | F | C. Czechoslovakia<br><br>D. United States              |
| 1 | 68. "...the forces of Communist China supported by help (from this country) took the field against the United Nations armies."                                      | E | E. Russia<br>F. Great Britain<br>G. Japan<br>H. France |
| 1 | 69. "...signed an Anti-Comintern Pact with Germany and with Italy in which the partners promised to support each other in fighting the spread of Communism."        | G |  |
| 1 | 70. With the signing of a peace treaty in 1955, this country "like Switzerland has become neutral in the struggle between the western and Communist worlds".        | B |  |



Values	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1      71. Proposals for a European Defence Community "made slow progress, partly because (this country) hesitated to allow Germany to rearm under any conditions..."	H	

Comments on Questions #66 - #71

These are simple identifications of countries by brief descriptions. The examination paper indicates that the questions are taken from the textbook Canada in the Modern World. These are all Type I questions.

Questions #72 - #75 (inclusive)

In questions 72 to 75, select the BEST answer and indicate your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

1      72. The Mandates System was

A. an attempt by the      B  
allies victors at the  
end of World War I to  
adhere to secret treaties

B. a system to provide  
enlightened government  
for the surrendered  
possessions of Germany  
and Turkey.

C. a method used by allied  
victors at the end of World  
War I to fulfill their  
imperialistic aspirations



Values	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
	D. a compulsory method devised for the collection of reparations at the end of World War I	
1	73. When Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931, the United States	
	A. Landed marines in Manchuria to oppose the Japanese	B
	B. urged the League of Nations to act vigorously and promised moral support	
	C. broke diplomatic ties with both China and Japan	
	D. sent an investigating committee into Manchuria to determine the aggressor	
1	74. The "Truman Doctrine" had as its basic aim the	
	A. provision of welfare measures to unemployed in the United States	B
	B. containment of Communism	
	C. spreading of democratic ideology throughout the world	
	D. integration of races in the United States	



Values	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	75. In 1918, which one of the following was NOT considered to be a possible solution to the elimination of the causes of war?	
	A. Reduction and limitation of armaments	
	B. Access to the markets and resources which countries needed outside their own borders	
	C. Just and equal treatment of minorities	
	D. Introduction of unchecked competition in the economic field.	

Comments on Questions #72 - #75

These are all Type I questions but #72 appears to be worthy of consideration. The question asks: "The mandate system was..." and the answer required from four alternatives is: "a system to provide enlightened government for the surrendered possessions of Germany and Turkey." This implies that no other motive was involved, whereas, in fact, it is likely that motives of revenge and the desire to deprive Turkey and Germany of their empires were of prime significance.





UNIT IV

NATIONALISM AND THE MODERN WORLD

Questions #76 - #86 (inclusive)

In questions 76 to 80 inclusive, match each statement in COLUMN I with the appropriate leader in COLUMN II and record the letter of your choice from COLUMN II on the separate ANSWER SHEET PROVIDED. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

Match the leader in COLUMN II with the statement in COLUMN I.

Values	COLUMN I (Statement)	COLUMN II (Leader)	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
	76. He convened a conference in Ottawa in 1932 when preferential rates within the Commonwealth were arranged.	A. Lord Sydenham B. Sir Wilfred Laurier C. Lord Durham	F	p. 99
	77. He supported the League of Nations but held the view that the League should be an "instrument of cooperation and conciliation, not of coercion".	D. W. L. Mackenzie King E. Vincent Massey F. R. B. Bennett G. L. B. Pearson	D	p. 349
	78. He favoured the Fulton-Favreau formula for amending the Canadian Constitution.	H. Sir John A. Macdonald	C	
	79. He recognized the "dual nature of Canadian cultural traditions" in his report on arts, letters and sciences which he handed down in 1951.		E	p. 357



Values	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
80. He recommended a union of Upper and Lower Canada with one Legislature which, if elected on the basis of representation by population, would ensure an English majority in the assembly.	C	p. 283
1 81. Which provision of the Quebec Act, 1774, aroused resentment and suspicion in the Thirteen Colonies because it was a challenge to their expansion?		
The extension of the Quebec boundary to the confluence of the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers.		p. 270
1 82. How did the Constitutional Act of 1791 satisfy the political demands of the United Empire Loyalists? Specify one.		
Representative government; clergy reserves; English civil law, etc. in Upper Canada; executive and legislative councils offered a check on legislative assembly.		
1 83. What term is generally applied to a governmental structure where advisers to the Governor are chosen and controlled by the people through an elected assembly?		
Responsible government - Cabinet system		p. 286



Values	Reference to Answer
1 84. Why did the repeal of the Corn Laws by Britain in 1846 create a movement for amalgamation with the United States among some Canadian merchants?	
The merchants were dissatisfied with the loss of preferences, they felt that they would fare better under U.S.	p. 295

Comments on Questions #76 - #84

These are all Type I questions. However, apparent in these questions is an oversimplification of events. For example, the Quebec Act, 1774, which is referred to in question #81, is entirely separated from question #84 which refers to the repeal of the Corn Laws, when seen in the light of the Quebec Act, becomes much more easily understandable. There was clearly a tradition of suspicion between the Empire merchants and the government in London. The repeal of the Corn Laws may be well understood as part of that tradition--not, as the question implies--an isolated event which produced a tendency to rebellion. Because of its isolation, question 84 is considered to be in need of development.

Questions #85 - #90 (inclusive)

- 1 85. In creating the independent states of India and Pakistan, what was the basis of division or separation?

Religion

p. 366

- 1 86. Give ONE recent example of Red China's opposition to India in territorial disputes.

Linkin, Kashmir, Bhutan

Current  
Affairs



Values	Reference to Answer
1 87. Why did the natives in Rhodesia fail to support Ian Smith's type of independence for that area?	
Because of racial segregation (discrimination). Because the natives feel that the constitution will not give them enough representation.	Current Affairs
1 88. Some of the Quebec people favor the policy of "Separatism". Why?	
Economic reasons; claims of discrimination, fear of absorbtion of the French culture; desire of French-Canadians to be masters of their own destiny.	Current Affairs
1 89. Why did the OAS troops intervene in the Dominican civil struggle?	
They wanted to forestall the takeover of the Republic by Communists; They wanted to prevent another Cuba; Act as a general peacekeeping role within the organization.	Current Affairs
2 90. As a middle power, Canada has been able to exert more influence in world affairs than other middle powers. Give TWO reasons for this.	





Values

Reference  
to Answer

- i. Canada has taken an active interest in the U.N.; in peace-keeping operations; in various commissions for maintaining peace;
- ii. Offering foreign aid; in having sincere talks when peace was in jeopardy; in her frank criticisms of the Big Powers; Canada has never been a colonial power.

Comments on Questions #85 - #90

These are all Type I questions, but they depend on the recall of current affairs material. Questions #88, #89, and #90 all appear to be problematical. For example, #88 expects students to give ONE reason (virtually any one) to explain "Separatism" in Quebec; question #89 is discussed in great deal in the body of the dissertation; question #90 depends on the assumption that Canada does actually exercise more influence on world affairs than other middle powers. This question could in itself be a matter of consideration.

Questions #91 - #105 (inclusive)

In questions 91 to 95 inclusive, match the Policy or Principle in COLUMN I with appropriate Legislation or Action in COLUMN II and record your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.



Values	COLUMN I (Policy or Principle)	COLUMN II (Legislation or Action)	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
	91. Became, with its subsequent amendments the written portion of the Canadian Constitution	A. Act of Union, 1840 B. Balfour Declaration, 1926	E	p. 313-1441
	92. An example of a law passed by the British Parliament but binding on Canada even after her acceptance of the Statute of Westminster	C. Proclamation of George III 1763 D. Colonial Laws Validity Act, 1865	H	p. 339
	93. This act prevented any Dominion from adopting laws which contradicted imperial acts	E. British North America Act, 1876 F. Quebec Act, 1774	D	p. 338
	94. English law and an elected assembly were to be introduced in Canada as soon as conditions warranted	G. Constitutional Act, 1791 H. Abdication Act, 1936	C	p. 271
	95. Defined the relationship between the members of the Commonwealth		B	p. 367
1	96. Why was jurisdiction over education in Canada assigned to the provincial legislatures?			

To satisfy the Quebec desires to retain its identity through culture. To ensure a separate school system for Quebec and Ontario.



Values

Reference  
to Answer

- 1 97. Why was jurisdiction over defence in Canada assigned to the central government rather than to provincial governments?

It is common to the nation as a whole

- 1 98. What is the difference between a unitary and federal type of government structure?

In a unitary type of government there is only one governmental authority for all sections of the country, while in a federal form of government there are regional governments that look after matters in their own region.

- 1 99. Why did Singapore secede from Malaysia?

Because of ethnic differences; because of political unrest by Chinese in Singapore; Chinese monopoly of Malaysian economy.

Match each definition in COLUMN I with the appropriate term from COLUMN II and record the LETTER of your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

COLUMN I (Definition)	COLUMN II (Term)	Official Answer
100. A decision reached by the cabinet and forwarded to the Governor for his approval	A. By-elections B. Redistribution C. Order-in Council	C



Values	COLUMN I (Definition)	COLUMN II Term)	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
101.	Drawing up constituency lines so that representation in the House of Commons may be adjusted each decennial census	D. Straw-vote  E. Speech from the throne  F. Gerrymandering  G. Want of confidence motion	B	
102.	A reorganization of constituencies by a government in such a way so as to favor its own party during the ensuing election	H. Referendum	F	
103.	A vote taken for the purpose of allowing the people to make the decision on a problem directly rather than through elected representatives		H	
104.	Usually brought in as an amendment by the opposition to a government motion. Frequently this is an attack on Cabinet policies during the debate on the speech from the throne		G	





Values

Reference  
to Answer

105. There are many factors which hinder unity in Canada. IDENTIFY FIVE IN SENTENCE FORM.

(1) Physical barriers prevent settlement. Size inhibits communication.

(2) Regional inequalities in economic development.

(3) Multicultural diversity of Canadian people. Separatist movement in Quebec

(4) Juggling for power of provincial premiers has acted as a deterrent.

(5) Grain of country runs north and south. Small population over a vast area. Proximity to U.S.

Comments on Questions #91 - #105

All Type I questions with no obvious problems.

UNIT V

CANADIAN CIVIC AFFAIRS

Questions #106 - #110 (inclusive)

- 1 106. Name the governmental body in Alberta whose approval must be obtained for sales of debentures by a municipal corporation.

Local authorities board



Values	Reference to Answer
2     107. Municipal councils exercise the legislative function through by-laws and resolutions. What is the difference between a by-law and a resolution?	
By-law: A form of legislation which applies to all people residing within the municipality.	
Resolution: A form of legislation which deals with internal administration and management of a municipality and does not directly affect the public.	
2     108. What is the purpose of classifying powers of Alberta Municipal Councils as:	
Mandatory powers: ensures minimum services affecting the welfare of a community.	p. 414
Optional Powers: Services allow freedom to expand local services.	
2     109. Civil servants usually hold permanent positions with the government. State TWO advantages to the municipality of such an arrangement.	
i. Source of valuable information; efficiency of civil service; improved the assurance of permanency; unbiased suggestions from	p. 450
ii. Civil servants free from politics; loyalty to municipality in which they reside and administer continuity of policy.	



Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	112. Which of the following actions is beyond the legal jurisdiction of a municipal corporation?		
	A. Borrowing money to meet local needs	D	p. 414
	B. Levying taxes upon business and property		
	C. Imposing penalties and fines for infractions of its by-laws		
	D. Issuing money		
1	113. The major source of revenue obtained by an Alberta city is derived from		
	A. Fines	D	p. 440
	B. Business Tax		
	C. Provincial grants		
	D. Property Tax		
1	114. The first claim on the revenue of Municipal Councils is for		
	A. public works	B	p. 444
	B. payment on debentures		
	C. education		
	D. public health services		



Values	Reference to Answer
2     110. Many citizens fail to exercise their franchise at local municipal elections. Give TWO reasons commonly advanced for such action.	
i. One vote doesn't make any difference present councillors are doing a good job; citizens don't understand the problems;	p. 448 & 449
ii. Citizens don't know the candidates or the issues; no major issues at stake.	

In questions 111 to 115 inclusive, choose the BEST answer and indicate your answer on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

Official  
Answer

1     111. In which of the following forms of Alberta municipal government are municipal and school board functions exercised by the council?	
A. City	C     p. 433 & 417
B. Town	
C. County	
D. Village	





Values		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	115. Which of the following Royal Commissions made recommendations for the advancement of education in Alberta?		
	A. Gordon Commission		
	B. Fowler Commission		
	C. Cameron Commission		
	D. Rowell-Sirois Commission		

In questions 116 to 121 inclusive, match each responsibility in COLUMN I with the appropriate official in COLUMN II and record your choice on the separate ANSWER SHEET provided. Use an ORDINARY HB PENCIL. These questions carry a value of 1 mark each.

Values	COLUMN I (Responsibility)	COLUMN II (Official)	Official Answer	Reference to Answer
1	116. Directing the administrative work of the Department of Education.	A. The Minister B. The Deputy Minister	B	p. 430 & 433
1	117. Initiating legislation on education	C. The Director of Curriculum D. The Registrar	A	p. 433
1	118. Supervising of the choice of aims and objectives of courses offered in the schools.		C	p. 431



COLUMN I (Responsibility)		COLUMN II (Official)		Official Answer	Reference to Answer
Values					
1	119. Checking on the efficiency of secondary schools.	E. The Director of School Administration	F		p. 431
1	120. Issuing of teachers' certificates.	F. The High School Inspector	D		p. 432
1	121. Arranging for raising of loans through sales of debentures.	G. The Superintendent of Schools	E		p. 432
		H. The Chief Superintendent of Schools			

Comments on Questions #106 - #121

All Type I questions with no obvious problems except for question #109. In this question the advantages of permanent civil servants are emphasized. No reference is made to the possible disadvantages of permanent civil servants in the text. This type of question in conjunction with the approach taken in the text tends to emphasize one side of an issue.

Question #122

ESSAYS

You are required to write ONE ESSAY and the outline ONLY for another topic of your choice from the list below. (Questions 122 and 123)

30 122. Essay.

Write a clear, well-planned essay of at least 250 words on ONE of the following topics. Give your essay a title. Your work will be marked for content, for logical development, for clarity, and for exactness of expression.



## Values

- I. During the last thirty or forty years Canada has developed a keen and an active interest in her Arctic and Sub-Arctic regions. Discuss the reasons for this growing interest.
- II. Since Britain abandoned the mercantile system, Canada has followed a variety of trade policies. Explain why the government changed its policies from time to time.
- III. "The Afro-Asian Bloc will eventually dominate the United Nations completely." Do you agree? Discuss.
- IV. Do the aims and achievements of space exploration justify the great expenditure which is entailed?
- V. Discuss the problems faced by Alberta municipalities which make it difficult to balance their budgets.
- VI. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of a minority type of government as evidenced from recent Canadian experience.

### Question #123

#### 10 123. Outline

Prepare an organized outline for the content you would propose for a second essay. Choose any one of the six topics EXCEPT the one on which you have already written. Your outline will be judged for content and organization only.



Summary

Marks

Type I	Questions	134
Type II	"	16
Type III	"	10
Type V	"	10
Type VI	"	<u>30</u>
Total		200





## APPENDIX D



## Merleau-Ponty and the Mirrored Self

Merleau-Ponty, working thirty years after the death of Mead and in a different academic milieu, develops a theory (the theory of the "Mirrored Self") which is strikingly similar to Mead's work.<sup>1</sup> The main difference between Mead and Merleau-Ponty seems to be that the former was primarily intuitive whereas the latter worked from the empirical studies of numerous French and German psychologists.

Like Mead, Merleau-Ponty's study is genetic. He refers to studies of infants from birth to three years and argues that between six months and one year the child gradually develops an idea of himself as being one self amongst others. This process:

...Involves the development of perception of one's own body--a step which is considerably aided by the child's becoming acquainted with the image of his body in the mirror.<sup>2</sup>

Merleau-Ponty indicates that a child starts taking notice of his mirror-image at about six months, but only gradually becomes aware that the image in the mirror really is an image of himself.

Prior to pursuing Merleau-Ponty's development of this theory, it is necessary to indicate that he looks to a variety of types of psychological study to confirm the position that he adopts. But the similarity with Mead's work of the aspect developed here is striking. For example, Merleau-Ponty indicates that the behaviour of animals in the presence of mirrors is quite different from the behaviour of infants. He concludes this part of the study:

Here again, in other words, the animal does not display conduct that is characteristic of the symbol, of the external image



as such. In the presence of the mirror he is disoriented, confused, and turns away hostilely in order to return to the objects that for him are fundamental....<sup>3</sup>

The child's discovery that the mirror image is really an image and not another person is normally learned first in relation to another person. Merleau-Ponty interprets from the records of a psychologist:

A child smiles in a mirror at the image of his father. At this moment his father speaks. The child appears surprised and turns toward the father...he learns something...after several weeks he still tried to grasp the image in the mirror with his hands...

We should say that first phase of apprenticeship, the child gives the image and the model an existence relatively independent of each other.<sup>4</sup>

It would seem that confrontation with the mirror is one of those threshold activities (mother love, copulation, fighting) to which Mead refers and out of which could develop language. But in the absence of the ability to symbolize the non-human seems unable to develop further.

Merleau-Ponty accepts the analyses of psychologists who argue that the child becomes aware of his own image after he becomes aware of the image of others because it is simpler to identify that the separate image is a duplicate of another. He can see two images, one of which is a veridical duplicate of another. This is not the case with his own mirror image. The child can only see certain parts of himself so that when he does see himself in the mirror he has to learn that it is indeed an image of himself:

Thus for him it is a problem first of understanding that the visual image of his body which he sees over there in the mirror is not



himself, since he is not in the mirror but here, where he feels himself to be; and second, he must understand that not being located there, in the mirror, but rather where he feels himself introceptively, he can nonetheless be seen by an external witness at the very place at which he feels himself to be and with the same visual appearance that he has from the mirror.<sup>5</sup>

This is a process which is gradually arrived at and only after he has recognized others and separated them from their images.

Through the mirror image the child is able to see himself and is, henceforth, provided with a means to symbolize himself.<sup>6</sup> Then in words surprizingly similar to Mead's, Merleau-Ponty writes that the mirror image leads to a grasping "...of the me as I feel myself and the me as I see myself or as others see me."<sup>7</sup> Merleau-Ponty goes on to write:

...the specular image has a de-realizing function in the sense that it turns the child away from what he effectively is, in order to orient him toward what he sees and imagines himself to be.<sup>8</sup>

The crucial point here is that what "he sees and imagines are powerfully influenced by individuals who are significant to him. Here again he respects what others think of him--especially those called "significant others."





References

1. James M. Edie (ed.), Merleau-Ponty--The Primacy of Perception and Other Essays (Chicago: Northwestern University Press, 1964).

2. Ibid., p. 125.

3. Ibid., p. 126.

4. Ibid., p. 127-128.

5. Ibid., p. 129. (*Italics in original*)

6. Ibid., p. 137.

7. Ibid.

8. Ibid.



## APPENDIX E



## Proponents of the New Social Studies.

The following works were categorized as belonging to the New Social Studies program for the purposes of this study.

Gerald L. Berry, *Problems and Values* (Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Ltd., 1966. Experimental Edition.

Mark Chester & Robert Tox, Role Playing Methods in the Classroom, (Chicago: S. R. A. Inc., 1966).

Millard Clements, "The Disciplines and the Social Studies", in Jean Fair and Fannie Shaftel (eds)., Effective Thinking in the Social Studies (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967).

Shirley Ergle, "Decision Making: The Heart of the Social Studies," in Byron G. Massialas and Andreas M. Kazamias, Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1964).



Byron G. Massialas, "Teaching History as Inquiry" in Shirley Engle, (ed). New Perspectives in World History (Washington: National Education Association, 1964).

Byron G. Massialas & Benjamin C. Cox, Inquiry in Social Studies (New York: McGraw Hill, 1966).

Irving Morrisett (ed), Concept and Structure in the New Social Studies (New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1966).

Donald Oliver & James Shaver, Teaching Public Issues in the High School (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966).

Michael Sirver, Methodology of Evaluation, (Lafayette: Social Science Consortium # 110, 1966).













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